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TAXATION AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN ASIAN COUNTRIES[1]

It has been observed that in some of the countries of Asia and the Far East, where population is increasing by about 1½ per cent per annum or more, unless favoured by abnormal changes in the terms of trade, the current rate of annual net investment of about 5 per cent or less of national products is not enough to raise the *per capita* product.[2] Such a low volume of invest ment requires to be stepped up if national product *per capita* is to be raised even at an annual rate of a modest 1½—2 per cent.

This paper reviews the present revenue structure of some of these under-developed countries of Asia and the Far East with reference to the problems of financing an increased rate to investment.

INTRODUCTION

Availability of domestic savings

A primary, though not the only, cause of the current inadequate investment in these less developed countries is the low level of domestic savings.

Personal savings can be estimated to work out at around 1 per cent of the gross national product or even less. This is not surprising in view of the fact that personal savings in the advanced countries like the United States and Canada with very high *per capita* incomes range from 4 to 6 per cent of their gross national product.

A second source of savings, namely, business savings, composed of funds retained or used by enterprises for depreciation and investment and their undistributed profits, is also small, though reliable estimates are not available. A peculiar characteristic of these countries is the predominance of agriculture organized on small-scale farming. Industrial and service establishments are also organized on a small-scale basis. These small enterprises are owned by private individuals and their cash savings over and above their expenditure on maintenance of their meagre equipment are indistinguishable from personal savings as considered above. In India, the smallness of the large-enterprise private sector is indicated by the fact that in this sector the net value added was only 8 per cent of gross national product in 1948. Half of this was the wage bill and the saving may be estimated at less than 2 per cent of gross national products.

The third important source is government savings which may be defined as the excess of revenues of public authorities over expenditure other than on investment. In view of the significant role that the governments of the countries in the region are playing in their economic development, government saving may be expected to constitute an important proportion of the national product. Unfortunately the governments have found it necessary to shoulder a very large burden of defense and administration, which reduces their savings available for domestic capital formation. Thus, for India, for the year 1948/49, only Rs 490 million, or about 0.6 per cent of gross national product, were available as a surplus of government revenue over current expenditure, the latter excluding the maintenance provision of significant government enterprises such as railways, post and telegraph and irrigation systems. Total revenue was around 7½ per cent of gross national product of which about 7 per cent was taken up by current expenditure. A gross capital formation of about 2½ per cent, but for the above saving of 0.6 per cent, was met by borrowing. The volume of government saving for other countries is also none too encouraging. For the years around 1948/49, the Government of Burma saved 4 per cent of its probably under-estimated national income, those of Ceylon and the Philippines saved less than 2 per cent; and Malaya barely balanced its budget on current account. Indonesia and the states of Indochina did not meet even their current expenditure from revenues.

It is obvious from the above account that the present rate of aggregate saving has to be increased considerably if the economy is to undertake investment at a rate sufficient to employ the increasing population and secure a modest rise in *per capita* income, without inflation.

1. Prepared by the Fiscal Division, Department of Economic Affairs. United Nations.
2. "Some financial aspects of development programmes in Asian countries", United Nations, *Economic Bulletin for Asia and the Far East*, Vol. III, Nos. 1-2, November, 1952, p. 2.

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Private foreign investment and international loans and grants

One possible method of non-inflationary financing is foreign private investment and international loans and grants.

Since the first world war, the net export to Asia of long-term capital from the advanced countries declined, because of the change in the economic position of the United Kingdom, France and Netherlands which were the most important capital-exporting countries of the pre-1914 period. These countries, as a result of the two world wars, have not been able to restore their balance of payments to a position making possible a net export of capital. Nearly all the current savings are geared to investment.

The United States alone has emerged as the principal source of exports of private capital. However its investments in Asia are not large. From 1947 to 1950, the net outflow of private capital from the United States averaged 1,200 million a year. Of this amount, Asian countries obtained less than $250 million. Four fifths of the latter was in petroleum only.

More important than private investment in the international flow of funds in the post-war period have been inter-governmental programmes of loans and aid. The main sources have been the United States programmes of direct loans (to India) and loans through the Export-Import Bank (to Indonesia) and the Reconstruction Finance Corporation (to the Philippines) and of the Mutual Security Agency aid (to Pakistan, India, Burma, Thailand, the states of Indochina and China [Taiwan]). A large part of the latter is military aid. A second major source has been the post-war releases of sterling by the United Kingdom, which are a major feature in the Colombo Plan of mutual programmes of help by the Commonwealth countries for the economic development of countries of South-East Asia. The sterling balances of the region are likely to be exhausted in a short period in the future; and unless the British investment market picks up, the scale of assistance from this source will be drastically reduced. Finally, the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development has so far disbursed about $70 million to India, Pakistan, and Thailand. The Bank's lending activities are restricted by the limitations imposed on it to finance only those projects which would directly be able to earn profits sufficient to repay the loan within a reasonable period and pay an approximate rate of interest and commission of a little less than 5 per cent.

Apart from the sterling releases and the aid from the Soviet Union to mainland China, the approximate magnitude of inter-governmental and international economic aid would hardly average $200 million a year. Foreign capital of such magnitude—i.e. of less than 1 per cent of the approximate total regional income of the under-developed countries of Asia and the Far East, excluding mainland China[2]—can hardly be counted upon as a significant source of finance for economic development. Short of a drastic increase in the scale of such international investment, loans and aid, these countries of Asia will have to look first to "raising themselves by their own bootstraps".

Increased domestic savings

The question then arises what prospects there are of increasing domestic savings.

Personal and small business savings may be increased by improving institutional facilities such as postal savings, credit unions, insurance companies, co-operative societies. While it would be worth while to exert efforts, not more than 2 to 3 per cent of national product may be saved in this direction. The bulk of the savings has to be obtained from the large-scale business sector and the government.

Besides its smallness, the main drawback of the large-scale business sector in Asian countries is the competition it sets up with the government for the control of productive resources which it redirects towards projects of lesser priority. Private business savings are not frequently lent to the government, nor are they invested in agriculture, irrigation, transport, electricity and power—fields which secure large external economics but smaller private gains. In India, for instance, all these fields are to be developed by government finance in the Five-Year Plan. The private enterprise sectors generally "plough back" their profits in the expansion of existing industries; only a very small proportion is available for setting up new industries. While in the present under-developed stage both types of investment have their place, the governments are often forced to divert investment into plans of basic development by shutting off other channels of private investment by direct controls, or indirectly by taxation.

One way of channelling savings into the government sector would be direct procurement of resources, such as food, clothing, etc. for payment to development

1. The Soviet Union granted a loan of $300 million to the People's Republic of China for the purchase of various kinds of machinery and industrial equipment according to an agreement signed on 14 February, 1950.

2. *Economic Bulletin for Asia and the Far East*, op. cit., p. 3.

workers. Alternatively, unpaid labour might be obtained. Given an authoritarian economy willing to use force, the limits of such forcible reduction of consumption are fairly wide. The private sector—peasants, workers, etc.—have to supply their labour or to part with their products in kind. The industrial sector is nationalized and the governments obtain sizable revenues from the disparity between the value of the product and wage bill. A process of this kind is in operation in mainland China.

Such an authoritarian programme is not in conformity with the political climate in other countries of Asia and the Far East. Also, the prospects for voluntary supply of unpaid labour or products in kind are limited. The fiscal systems of these countries have to operate through the money mechanism, and while there may be a difference of opinion on the precise boundaries of private and public enterprise, the fiscal systems have to take for granted that private enterprise would function over large areas of economic activity.

A fiscal system operating with money mechanism can obtain resources to a significant extent only from the monetary sector of the private economy. It can do so by taxation. Taxation, from the taxpayer's standpoint, is a compulsory transfer of financial resources to the government. There is also compulsory lending which was practised during the war in the United Kingdom and since recently, is practised on civil servants in India. In the short run, compulsory lending is akin to taxation; it is, however, less keenly felt since the State usually pays interest and undertakes to repay the loan at a later date under specified conditions. If the government fails to obtain funds by taxation it may borrow. If the borrowing is subscribed by the public it is a voluntary transfer of resources to the government. Such a voluntary transfer is non-inflationary only to the extent that it leads to a reduction in private consumption and investment. Small savings lent to the government largely represent such a transfer. On the other hand, subscription to government loans may represent only a transfer of idle savings by the public, credit expansion by the commercial banks or an expansion of the currency issue by the central banks. If the government maintains large cash reserves, it may draw on these. Finally, if the treasury is responsible for the issue of currency the government may directly finance its investment by increased currency issue. These methods of financing deficits may lead to inflation. Inflation is akin to taxation and compulsory lending, insofar as it is "forced saving". Taxation and compulsory lending, however, permit the "burdens" to be fairly and equitably distributed; inflation leads to indiscriminate shifts in income and a distortion of investment, and if unchecked, might wreck the development altogether.

The scope for voluntary transfer of private resources to the government is limited in the countries of the region. The transfer of small savings is effected most successfully in India. But such savings accounted only for less than ½ per cent of national income. As for large amounts of personal or business savings, the relatively low levels of interest on bonds do not provide an attraction preferable to alternative profit opportunities. Successive Indian finance ministers have commented in their budget speeches on the failure in obtaining subscription to government loans. For lack of an organized bond market, most of the securities are subscribed by the commercial and central banks and do not represent a transfer of genuine private savings.

Thus, not only the volume of private savings is small, but very little of it is available to the government for economic development. A large part of the remaining private savings is used for providing consumer capital. This is the case with the savings of money lenders, insurance companies, etc. Even the loans made by agricultural co-operative credit societies are diverted to consumer uses for lack of proper supervision. A part of business savings is also used for speculative investments in inventories and real estate.

Taxation, therefore, remains as the only effective financial instrument for reducing private consumption and investment and transferring resources to the government for economic development. While the governments may make the maximum effort they can to secure additional revenues by taxation and compulsory borrowing, the magnitude of non-inflationary financial resources that they can devote to economic development would depend on the amounts that they are able to save from being spent on current expenditure of a non-development character. This involves an implementation of the most rigorous measures of economy in such expenditures.

THE PATTERN OF THE REVENUE SYSTEMS OF UNDER-DEVELOPED ASIAN ECONOMIES

Magnitude of government revenues

The proportion of national income obtained as government revenue shows a considerable disparity between the different countries of the region. While all the countries may be regarded as relatively underdeveloped and poor, the proportion of total national

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revenue[1] to national income is above 14 per cent in Burma and Ceylon; while in India, Thailand, Malaya and the Philippines, it ranges around only 7 per cent of national income. While each country has its specific problems, the disparity remains even under similar conditions; there are considerable disparities between Burma and Thailand in the revenues raised despite their similarity in the predominance of rice exports; or between Ceylon and Mayala which face similar export conditions. India, despite its relative development, is on the low side in the revenue it obtains.

While the difference is considerable so far as revenues are concerned, all these countries are in the same position in having low or negative savings in the government sector. India and the Philippines use up about 90 per cent of their revenues in current expenditure; the proportion is approximately the same for Ceylon with more than twice the proportion of national income raised in revenue. And Ceylon has no more drastic commitments on defence than either India or the Philippines.

Indirect versus direct taxes

A comparatively heavy dependence on taxes on commodities—the so-called "indirect" taxes—is one of the most characteristic features of the tax structure of the under-developed countries of South-East Asia. This is in marked contrast with advanced countries where taxes on income and wealth form a large part of the revenues of the government. For instance, in the United States, such "direct" taxation accounts for approximately 70 per cent of total federal, state and local tax revenues. Japan, the most economically developed country in Asia, obtains about 50 per cent from income taxation. Even if we consider land taxes as falling on agricultural incomes, the proportion of "direct" taxes to the total constitutes about one-third for India, one-fourth for Pakistan and approximately or less than one-fifth for other countries.

Pattern of indirect taxes

Customs duties have been the traditional source of revenue for most of the countries of the region. Of these, the more important are import duties. The export duties outstripped the import duties only recently in Malaya and Ceylon following the post-Korean war boom in raw materials. The boom has subsided and import duties are again taking their lead in indirect taxes.

While revenues have been growing, the yield from customs duties has been rather steady. This has been the product of two opposing factors. In a search for revenues, higher rates of duty have been imposed on all imports except those of bare necessities and machinery for increased production. On the other hand, balance of payments difficulties have led to restriction of the volume of all imports other than duty free or low duty imports.

The revenue from export duties is a product of the demand for the region's exports. The large fluctuations in the demand for and the prices of the region's exports are more sharply reflected in the revenues from export duties. When demand is strong and prices high, the rates are also increased; the revenues increase more than in proportion to the volume and value of exports. The reverse is true in the case of a fall in demand; the revenues suffer a more than proportionate decline.

The fluctuations in the demand for the region's exports and its terms of trade affect also the revenue from imports through their effect on balances of trade and payments. When revenues from export duties are high, those from import duties are also high. When the demand for exports falls, import restrictions are tightened, and there is a fall in the revenue from import duties. A favourable turn in the terms of trade, therefore, makes it possible to secure larger imports and it secures for the government larger revenues.

In the two "food-surplus" countries of the region, namely, Burma and Thailand, the governments are reducing domestic private demand by securing revenues for the government from the profits of monopoly exports of rice; the prices paid to domestic producers are very much below the international prices at which rice is exported. In Burma, the profits of the State Agricultural Marketing Board are the most important single source of revenue and account for approximately 40 per cent of tax revenue. Similarly the Rice Bureau in Thailand contributes more than 10 per cent of the tax revenue. In the "food-deficit" countries, India and Ceylon, on the other hand, imports of food have been subsidized to prevent the cost of living from rising. In Ceylon such subsidies reduced the tax revenue by 18 per cent.

Apart from the taxation of foreign trade—and of foreign exchange in the Philippines, where import duties are relatively unimportant—taxation of commodities has generally taken the form of high excise taxes (or import duties for non-domestic products) levied on liquor and tobacco. Thailand, like Japan, obtains profits from its monopoly of imports of tobacco.

1. Subsidies are considered to be negative indirect taxes and are deducted from revenue; they are excluded from expenditure.

In recent years sales taxes have been imposed in a number of countries to obtain more revenues. The tax machinery has varied from country to country. In Bombay, Delhi and some other States of India, sales taxes are levied at the retail sale stage; in Pakistan, they are levied at the production or import stage; Burma, Indonesia, and Japan levy taxes at every stage of turnover. The administration of the tax is largely confined to urban areas; the rates are generally moderate; and exemptions and inadequate enforcement are the additional factors making for low revenue yields.

The pattern of direct taxes

Taxes on personal income constitute the most important of the direct taxes in the countries of Asia. In Japan, approximately 90 per cent of the total direct tax revenue is accounted for by taxes on personal income, including in personal income the profits of unincorporated business concerns. In India, the taxes on incomes of persons, joint families, and unincorporated businesses constitute about two thirds of the total income tax revenue. The land taxes, collected by local governments, also bear largely on personal incomes in the peculiar conditions of agricultural production in Asia. While these proportions largely reflect the great role played in the economic life by one-man or one-family businesses, they also reflect the extraordinarily small part played by taxes based on property. In Japan, property taxes yield only about 4 per cent of the total tax revenues. In India, the property taxes levied by the municipal and State governments account for less than 2 per cent. There are no inheritance or gift taxes.

The income from property is subject to the same scale of rates as other incomes in Japan, India and Pakistan, as it is in the United Kingdom and the United States but not as it was in France and as it still is in Italy. Nevertheless it is taxed more heavily than the income from wages and salaries to the extent that the latter are granted earned income credit. Such credit comes to one-fifth of the total of earned incomes in India, Ceylon and Pakistan. This to some extent offsets the failure to tax capital values; but such offsetting is uneven.

Because of the operation of the land tax, agricultural income derived from land was exempt from further income taxation in India, Burma and Pakistan. The term "agricultural income" was interpreted widely to include profits, rent or revenues derived from land used for agricultural purposes. Even in the case of plantations, only a fraction of the income (40 per cent for tea) was chargeable to income tax. Recently, however, some of the States in India have introduced taxes on agricultural income.

FISCAL POLICY FOR ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Objective of a revenue policy for economic development

A revenue policy appropriate to economic development requires more revenues than what are currently being raised, if the present levels of the current expenditures of the government are to continue. The very low standard of living makes the process of compulsorily reducing consumption an extremely difficult job. It is made more delicate by two additional requirements. Firstly, the revenue structure must provide incentives towards increasing the productive efficiency of the community. Secondly, it is an equally important task of the fiscal policy to secure a fair and equitable distribution of the burdens imposed by a policy of austerity in an economy where a majority of the people verge on the subsistence level.

Fiscal policy alone, however, is too blunt an instrument to prevent inflation or counteract the evil consequences it leads to; it will have to be supplemented by an effective programme of direct controls. A correct fiscal policy would minimize, but not completely replace, the need for direct controls.

Customs duties

The revenues from customs duties are strictly dependent on the export conditions. The exports of the region are extremely vulnerable to fluctuations; the consequent unstable exchange earnings lead to fluctuations in import revenues as well. With a policy for economic development the high tax yielding imports of amenities and luxuries might be curtailed drastically; the remaining imports of necessities and capital equipment would normally be lightly taxed. Export duties will yield revenues only under abnormally favourable conditions like those which developed in the period following the outbreak of the war in Korea; on the assumptions of a stable and durable peace, exports will fluctuate with demand conditions elsewhere and export duties cannot be counted upon to provide significant and steady revenues. The only exceptions are the rice exporting countries, namely, Burma and Thailand, since the demand for rice continues to be steady and strong in response to the rising population in the food deficit countries of the region. In view of these difficulties one may question whether the major reliance placed so far on customs duties can continue. Apart from the point of view of revenue yield, export duties, particularly on

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agricultural products, are indiscriminate in their impact on the small versus the large, the efficient versus the inefficient, whether these be holdings or plantations. The taxes cannot be related to the capacity of the individual business to pay the tax, and thus are of low merit as regards incentive and equity.

Excise and sales taxes

The most popular of the excise taxes are the specific taxes on liquor and tobacco. This traditional source of revenue is being progressively and increasingly tapped by the governments of the region as can be seen from the increasing surcharges levied on these items which are traditionally considered to be "luxuries". Various family studies, however, indicate that the taxes bear more heavily on the poor. The most regressive excise taxes, however, are the taxes on some necessities like sugar, salt, matches, kerosene, etc., levied in India, Pakistan, Ceylon, Malaya and the Philippines.

The sales taxes are the more generalized form of excise taxes. Contrary to the indications given by their titles, most general sales taxes are not general. Food and basic necessities are exempt from the tax; the rest of the purchases are taxed at different rates depending on whether the commodity or the service purchased is a conventional necessity, an amenity or a luxury. The relatively more stringent restrictions on the demand for imports, durable consumer goods or luxuries are effectively strengthened by prohibitive rates on such items.

The distinction and discrimination between necessities, amenities and luxuries introduces the element of progressivity in indirect taxation. The sales taxes, while not regressive apparently in the lowest brackets, tend to make the tax structure regressive within particular income brackets, as regards these persons whose circumstances compel them to spend high percentages of their incomes. Thus large families are likely to be burdened severely, particularly since they have less tax-paying ability than smaller families with the same income. On the other hand, larger families spend a much higher proportion of their incomes on tax-exempt necessities and low-rate amenities; in these circumstances they would not be paying more in taxes than the smaller families.

The sales taxes are aimed at directly curtailing spending. They are expected to do so in two ways—they reduce the *ability* to spend by taking money away from consumers, and they lessen, to some extent at least, the *incentive* to spend, since tax liability can be reduced by saving more and spending less.

The reduction of the ability to consume in real terms can be achieved either through an extension of income tax or through the sales tax. The sales tax has this advantage over income tax that it would catch persons able to evade or avoid income taxes though it may open other possibilities of evasion. It would also catch expenditures out of accumulated wealth and out of capital gains which are not effectively covered by income taxes. It would directly tax consumption and not saving. On the other hand, sales taxes, in the first instance, raise prices and the cost-of-living. This in turn stimulates a demand for a wage rise which, if granted, offsets the income reducing effect of the sales tax. It is also doubtful if money spending is reduced as a result of the sales tax. Thus a ten per cent sales tax would not reduce total money spending unless it succeeds in reducing the purchases by at least nine per cent.

The relative popularity of the sales tax as an anti-inflationary measure in advanced countries is in part due to the very high levels of income taxation. After a certain amount of stepping up of the income tax, it was felt in these countries that a further increasing of the rates of income tax would adversely affect incentives, and encourage wasteful expenditures. Instead sales taxes were resorted to.

The choice as to the stage at which the sales tax would be levied has been a matter of administrative convenience. A one-stage tax at a relatively higher rate is to be preferred to taxation at several stages at lower rates. This has been the experience of Burma, Pakistan and Indonesia where a single stage sales tax has found favour in preference to the existing or abolished turnover taxes. The practice as to whether the tax would be levied at the manufacturers' or at the retail stage has varied. In Canada and the United Kingdom, and in Pakistan, the tax is a single stage tax levied on imports at the import stage and on domestic products for internal consumption at the wholesale stage. In the United States and India on the other hand, the sales taxes—other than federal excises—are mostly levied at the retail stage. The advantages claimed for retail sales taxes against manufacturers' or wholesale sales taxes are that the latter lead to the pyramiding of the original taxes and consequent burdening of the consumer by amounts greater than the benefit to the treasury. Secondly, retail sales taxes are supposed to promote consumer awareness of tax burden and hence to provide an effective instrument for curtailing potential consumption. On the other hand, from the administrative point of view, it would be more rational to levy the sales taxes by licensing of the manufacturers, importers or wholesale

distributors as has been the case in the United Kingdom or Pakistan. Secondly, a retail sales tax would be confined to purchases in urban areas only; while a manufacturers' sales tax may reach rural consumption. Even in the United States and India, the reason for the levy of sales taxes at the retail stage appears to be the legislative distribution of fiscal powers between the federal and State and local authorities. A manufacturers' sales tax would have created difficulties for interstate commerce since the tax systems and rates levied by the different States vary.

Taxation of incomes

We may now examine if the income tax is capable of further development. If it can be expanded it is a very suitable instrument to adopt because, in addition to securing an increased revenue yield, it is possible to provide within the tax structure incentives to increase productivity and to make allowance for the taxpayer's capacity to pay based on the income level and family responsibilities.

The present status of income taxes

The income tax was introduced in the last century in the then Indian Empire and exists, therefore, in a well-developed form in what are currently Pakistan, India, Ceylon and Burma. After the second world war, it was introduced in Malaya and British Borneo and Hong Kong. In the Philippines, the income tax law was first applied by the extension of the Act of Congress of the United States of 3 October 1913.

In India (and similarly in Pakistan and Burma), income tax is charged on income which has its origins in the national territories and on all income arising abroad of residents (including companies). Agricultural income is exempt from the scope of the federal income tax in India and Pakistan since such income is reckoned to be primarily covered by land taxes levied by the States. The tax is graduated in the case of individuals by means of allowances and a two-tier system of income and super taxes. There is a minimum limit below which incomes are not taxable. Incomes above this level are fully taxable except that the first slice of income is tax exempt. There is no tax allowance for family size. The amounts exempted are in effect deducted from the total income in arriving at the taxable income. The initial slices of taxable income are charged at reduced rates of tax, and only the balance is subject to tax at the standard rate. This standard rate of income tax for higher incomes is superimposed by progressive rates of supertax. Differentiation between earned and unearned income is made by means of the earned income relief, under which a specified fraction of the income (subject to a maximum) is deductible in arriving at the taxable income. Companies are liable at the standard rate on their total income irrespective of the amount of that income. They are not entitled to personal allowances or the reduced rate relief. The profits of companies, in addition to paying income tax at a flat rate, are also subject to corporation tax at a flat rate. Insofar as the company incomes are distributed to persons, the latter are given tax credit at the standard rate of income tax (but not the corporation tax) on their tax liabilities on total income including the dividend income.

A peculiar characteristic of the income tax systems of India, Pakistan and Ceylon is the application of the tax to the Hindu undivided family, a unit which is of primary importance in the Indian business organization. The Hindu undivided family in India is treated as an individual, except that the exemption limits are twice that of an individual. Adult males, members of an undivided Hindu family, in excess of two, are taxed as single persons.

A minor difference in Ceylon, Malaya and British Borneo and the Philippines is that the system of taxation is not a two-tier system of income and super taxes. The income tax on companies is at a flat rate and on persons at graduated rates with provision for personal and family allowances. Since there is no land tax, income tax does not exempt incomes from the cultivation of land.

The Hong Kong tax is composed of four schedular taxes, namely, property tax, salaries and annuities tax, profits tax and interest tax; and it falls short of a full income tax.

The limitations of the present system

Coverage: One of the most serious limitations of the present system of income taxes is its extremely low coverage. The income taxes in India cover about half a million assessees. Assuming an average number of five persons effectively covered per assessee, the tax is effective over only about 2.5 million people out of a total population of over 360 million. As for the percentage of incomes, transfer incomes must be added to the national income of upwards of Rs 90,000 million in 1948/49. Even so the incomes assessed to income and super taxation amounted only to Rs 6,000 million, or only around 5 per cent of incomes received. The income tax demand on incomes received in that year amounted to around Rs 1,100 million. To this may be

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added the corporation tax of about Rs 400 million. The total receipts under income taxation would be very much less than 2 per cent of national income. The situation in other countries of the region in the field of income taxation shows a similar stage of development as in India. The percentages of national income collected in taxation of incomes in Burma, Ceylon, Malaya, the Philippines, and Thailand were respectively 1.3, 3, 1, 1.2 and 0.6 per cent of their national incomes.

The income tax in the Asian under-developed countries is not, therefore, a mass tax as in Japan, or in other advanced countries, where it takes from 10 to 15 per cent of national income. In Asian countries, it effectively covers only a fringe at the top of the social pyramid. The mass of the population and of the national income remains untouched.

Personal income taxes; tax base: One reason for this is the high minimum tax exemption limits. Ignoring allowances for insurance and medical expenses, a person in India has to earn more than 17 times the national *per capita* income before he pays any tax on income. Similar exemption limits are around nine times the national *per capita* income in Ceylon for a single person, and 15 times for a married man with three dependent children. The Philippine income tax exempts six times the national *per capita* income for a single person and around 15 times for a married man with three children (see table 1).

The fact that this multiple to national *per capita* incomes is high in under-developed countries in contrast with advanced countries (2.1 in Japan and 1.9 in the United States for a married man with three children) is largely explained by the extremely low level of the national average *per capita* income. However, if economic development is to be secured through domestic financial resources in a poor country, the standard of minimum taxable capacity might have to be placed at a lower absolute level. If this is to be done, a question arises whether this would not bear on subsistence levels of income. It is, of course, very difficult to lay down any absolute standards for the determination of subsistence levels. If subsistence level in these countries may be defined as the national *per capita* income and if a family has approximately five members, persons capable of paying the income tax may be reckoned as those at an income level above five times the *per capita* income. The higher the level of *per capita* income the lower the multiple will be to conform to an absolute standard of minimum subsistence. Any such definition of subsistence level can only be subjective. In any case, in most countries with a sharply unequal distribution of incomes, a majority of people are below the national average. A person capable of paying income tax defined as above, while he may be considered poor in terms of relative standards of the more advanced countries, would still belong to the minority of upper income groups.

Another question arises if such a person is not already being taxed through indirect taxes. Not much by way of information is available about these lower "middle-class" expenditures; it would be interesting to find out how much of the import, excise and sales taxes is paid by persons at income levels above the national average but below the taxable minimum levels. Even if it is felt that indirect taxes do not take an adequate proportion of these incomes, it would still be worthwhile

TABLE 1

RATIOS OF EARNED INCOME TO NATIONAL *PER CAPITA* INCOME UP TO WHICH NO INCOME TAX IS PAYABLE BY A MARRIED MAN WITH WIFE AND THREE CHILDREN

Australia		1950	2.2
Canada		1950	2.3
France:	from labour	1950	2.6
	other income		0.4
Japan:	from labour	1951	2.0
	other income		1.7
United Kingdom		1950	2.1
United States		1950	1.9
Argentina:	from labour	1949	7.3
	commercial income		6.2
Egypt		1951	3.6
Mexico		1950	1.5
Burma		1950	21.4
Ceylon		1952	15.0
India		1953	16.8
Philippines		1950	15.3

to consider whether the extension of the income tax is a more suitable measure than an increase in import or excise taxes on commodities consumed by persons with incomes above the national average. Income tax has the attractive features of discrimination of taxable capacity; on the other hand, it is more difficult to administer. At present the cost of collection of the tax in India runs at around 1.25 per cent of the revenue collected. Expanding the tax base would mean a tremendous increase in the number of assessees, each subject to relatively small amounts of revenue. This would lead to a significant increase in the cost of collection. Lack of literacy and records is another handicap. The question then arises whether this could be overcome if the tax system were kept fairly simple. There are various ways of doing this. The taxes of industrial and plantation workers may be collected through the firms employing them. A presumptive assessment may be made for casual labour and tax deducted from wage payments. For self-employed shopkeepers a schedular system might be devised whereby taxes may be assessed as a fixed percentage of gross turnover, unless the person produces books to show that the tax would be lower if based on net income.

It is possible, however, on paper, to under-estimate the practical difficulties of any attempt to expand the scope of the income tax in Asia. In any case the transition would be a gradual process. If the tax base is gradually lowered, and administrative machinery expanded step by step every year, experience will indicate the optimum limit. However, at the present time, with the existing tax administration, the trend is in the reverse direction in India, where the Finance Minister, in the 1953/54 budget, proposed a raising of the exemption limit for personal income tax[1] on the grounds that the loss of revenue would be more than offset by the improvement of collections from the bigger assessees.

Personal income taxes; rate scales: Not only does income tax cover only the top one per cent of individuals, but the rates at which personal incomes are taxed are extremely low over a wide range of lower and middle brackets of the relatively high incomes subject to income tax (see table 2).

Stated another way, one has to earn Rs 20,000 in India, Rs 26,000 in Ceylon and P20,000 in the Philippines before paying 10 per cent of one's income in taxes. Looked at from any point of view—the relative status of the person at these levels of income or the relative purchasing power, equivalent to more than $10,000 in the United States—, the exactions from such high incomes are extremely small.

The question therefore arises whether the rate scales on personal incomes can be increased.[2] The rate scales, of course, do go up to around 80 per cent for the very

1. From Rs 3,600 to Rs 4,200 for individuals, and from Rs 7,200 to Rs8,400 for Hindu undivided families.
2. A mission to Ceylon in 1951 organized for the Government of Ceylon by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, in exploring the financial resources for the country's development, have felt it worthwhile to recommend an increase in income tax rates and a reduction of the exemption limit.

TABLE 2

INCOME TAXES AS PERCENTAGE OF EARNED INCOME AT UPPER-INCOME LEVELS FOR A MARRIED MAN WITH WIFE AND THREE CHILDREN IN 1950[a]

Income as multiple of national per capita income	10	20	50	100
Australia	25.4	42.0	57.0	62.3
Canada	16.1	27.6	41.4	50.9
France: from labour	9.7	17.5	31.1	44.5
other come	23.6	29.8	40.4	51.4
Japan: from labour	26.7	38.5	48.3	51.7
other come	29.2	39.8	48.9	52.0
United Kingdom	27.5	44.1	64.9	79.4
United States	20.5	35.1	53.7	66.8
Argentina: from labour	1.4	5.1	11.9	16.4
commercial income	2.4	7.0	14.9	17.3
Egypt: from labour	3.0	3.9	9.6	13.3
commercial income	16.0	16.0	18.2	21.6
Mexico: from labour	1.5	2.3	4.2	7.7
commercial income	4.1	5.7	9.2	13.2
Burma	—	—	6.3	10.7
Ceylon	—	0.3	10.0	18.0
India	—	2.3	5.7	11.6
Philippines	—	1.2	9.1	17.8

a. Except Argentina (1949) and Japan and Egypt (1951).

highest of incomes. The scope for an increase in these ranges is limited. But the fact that as at present the income taxation affects only the top level of incomes, it might be worthwhile to consider a sharp increase in the present low rates in the lower brackets, and a milder increase in the upper brackets. This decrease in apparent progressivity within the income tax structure, however, will increase the progressivity of the tax system as a whole, since the ratio of revenue from income taxes to revenue from some of the regressive excise taxes would be higher than it is at present. The next question is whether such an increase would not have adverse effects on productivity. On the one hand, it has been true that the business community in all countries has protested against a rise in income taxes, irrespective of the existing rate scales. Progressively the governments have increased the rates. Once the rate scales have been maintained for a certain length of time, they are accepted by the business community. No clear evidence is available whether on balance there has been an offseting decline in economic productivity. Even the severely high rates of taxes on individual (and corporate) incomes in advanced countries have not led to a large-scale decline in investment or the willingness to work. Even if this is feared, it is possible to incorporate within the tax structure reliefs for extra work or for investment. The level of economic activity in a period of economic development generally creates demand conditions favourable to business activity; these will more assuredly keep it at a high level even if the tax rates are high. And the higher the tax rates, the greater will be the importance attached by businessmen to the possibility of reducing tax liability by playing the game. On the other hand, certain difficulties might be created for tax administration. The problem of administering increased rates on the existing tax base is not as serious as it would be if the tax base were expanded to catch lower incomes, since this does not involve an increase in the number of assessments. But the higher the tax rates, the greater is the attraction to evade or avoid taxes. Evasion and illegitimate avoidance of tax would put some strain on the tax assessment machinery; in this case, the question may be asked whether it is not more desirable to consider an improvement of tax machinery rather than a continuation of low rates.

Personal income taxes; capital gains, net worth taxes and other problems: The present income tax systems in Asia are only superficially progressive. In practice, there are many ways in which the wealthy taxpayers may legally avoid the tax through "loopholes" and also through relatively ineffective—or at least uneven—administration of the law.

One of the legislative loopholes enables some persons to accumulate large wealth through profits on sales of capital assets, the value of which tends to become particularly inflated in periods of inflationary pressure. The current concept of income excludes income derived from the sale of business assets and land. Economically, however, there is no significance in the legislative distinction between income from property (which is taxable) and profits from the sale of this property. Both are incomes to the property owner. In addition to gains from sale of property, irregular incomes and those from the sale of intangible assets "not in the nature of trade" also escape taxation in most Asia countries. Finally, the upper income shareholders in closed companies retain their profits as undistributed profits and thus avoid paying taxes at their personal rates. The share values go up and they escape the tax on the profits from the sale of shares. Thus, if these profits were distributed, the regular income from shares which would have been taxed under income tax law is converted into irregular income which is tax free.

The idea in a net worth tax was to have an annual low-rate tax on the net excess of the value of assets over liabilities of well-to-do individual. In effect this was to be a property tax which would be low enough so that it could be paid out of current income on top of the income tax in the country. The advantage of a net worth tax is that it would have less effect on incentives than would an income tax achieving the same degree of progression. The net worth tax has to be paid irrespective of income; the net worth tax liability, unlike income tax liability, will not be reduced by a refusal to earn incomes by exertion and/or investment. Secondly, net worth tax is a more selective instrument for preventing the growth of undue concentration of wealth. It is the ownership of wealth rather than the receipt of incomes which secures the control over the economy. The other advantages of net worth tax are that it secures higher taxation of the sources of unearned income than of those of earned income, it gives an automatic tax discount to uncertain incomes, and it taxes those who merely hoard their wealth in unproductive form that yields no income. The difficulty of net worth taxation is, however, an administrative one. So far, effective net worth taxaation is operative only in advanced countries like Scandinavian countries and the Netherlands. Japan has pleaded lack of an administration capable of introducing net worth taxation. It is possible that such a measure may not be practicable in other countries of Asia either. In any case it would require considerable simiplification and adaptation to conditions in under-developed areas before it could

effectively be introduced in an advanced form as recommended by the Shoup Mission for Japan.

Capital gains taxation also has not been popular so far. India introduced capital gains taxation during the post-war inflation; it has since withdrawn it. It has now incorporated a system of taxing undistributed profits in closely-held companies at supertax rates, in order to eliminate one source of supertax evasion. The owners of such companies are charged supertax on the difference between the amount distributed and 60 per cent of assessable profits, unless there is satisfactory evidence to show why a larger amount should not have been distributed. Similarly, if the reserves exceed the paid-up capital and loans, the whole profits can be taxed at supertax rates as if they had been distributed. In the Philippines, closely held corporations are taxed on their improper accumulations of surplus at 25 per cent in addition to their corporate tax liabilities.

Personal income taxes; tax incentives: To encourage personal savings and investment the interest received from postal savings banks and government securities is exempt from incomes tax in Ceylon, India, and Pakistan. The premia paid to life insurance companies, provident funds, etc. also received favourable treatment in India and Pakistan. The total amount on which tax exemption is given is limited to one-sixth of the total income up to a minimum of Rs 6,000.

Earned income benefits are also given in India, Burma, Ceylon and Pakistan. India, Ceylon and Pakistan give a deduction of earned income equal to one-fifth of the total up to a maximum of Rs. 4,000. Earned income is defined as income from salaries or wages, business, vocation or profession carried out by the taxpayer, and any other sources derived from personal exertion. There are no earned income allowances in the Philippines.

Finally, subject to a maximum of 1/10 of the total income, income re-invested in industrial undertakings is exempt from income taxation in Pakistan. Similar exemptions are also available in India.

Company taxes: The corporate tax lacks the progressivity of the income tax; it has, however, the advantages of somewhat narrowing the loopholes of the income tax in respect of undistributed profits. Secondly, the tax directly affects the large-scale productive sector of the economy; and provides in its structure the incorporation of incentives to save and invest.

The most intricate problems of the administration of corporate taxation are encountered in the determination of taxable income. Detailed rules are laid down for expenses, exemptions and deductions. The reasons for this are not so much of equity as of economic consequences. The difficulties mainly concern the treatment of inter-company distribution of dividends, and the problems encountered through fluctuations in prices, in depreciation and in the valuation of fixed assets, and carry-over of losses.

To stimulate reinvestment, India and Ceylon give higher rates of depreciation on new plant and machinery. Profits of new industries up to 6 per cent of their invested capital are exempt from taxation for the first five years. Similarly, exemptions for the first four years are available to "new and necessary" industries in the Philippines. Pakistan also gives similar tax concessions to new industries.

The treatment of the distribution of dividends poses tricky problems for fiscal policy in the field of corporate taxation. On the one hand, as an anti-inflationary measure, it would be desirable not to encourage distribution of dividends. On the other hand, there is the problem of preventing undue accumulations of undistributed profits to avoid taxation at higher rates of personal income tax. To overcome this difficulty, it may be useful to distinguish between closely held and loosely held companies. The way in which India and the Philippines tackle the undistributed profits of closely held companies has been reviewed above. As for the loosely held companies, there are various ways to promote savings. Thus tax rebates are given to the companies for profits withheld from distribution, or profits reinvested in desirable forms of investment, or tax penalties are imposed on distributed dividends as in Pakistan. There is, however, no clear evidence available as to the effectiveness of these tax measures in discouraging or restraining the distribution of profits.

An undue concentration of wealth and tax avoidance through undistributed profits are not necessarily confined to closely held companies. Similar gains from non-distribution of profits are made by large stockholders of loosely held companies when as a result the stock values go up; such concentrations might be counteracted by capital gains taxation at the time of sale of stocks or by gift taxes, death duties or inheritance taxes when stocks are transferred by gift or at death.

The present practice in India, Pakistan, Burma and Ceylon of giving tax credit to individuals in respect of their dividends for the taxes paid by the companies owes its origins to the early British companies which in

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an economic sense were closely knit partnerships with limited liabilites. Under such conditions, the same persons were taxed twice: once as partners in a company and then again as individuals on their personal share of the profits after tax. This was considered to be inequitable and injurious to incentives. The economic realities of the working of a modern joint stock company have reduced the substance of the old arguments of the double taxation of profits and dividends. The stockowner is no longer a partner in any effective sense in a modern corporation; he is only the owner of "a piece of paper with a market value". To him the gross profits of the firm are less material than the dividend income derived from the possession of such a "piece of paper". His interest is primarily in the income from and capital value of his stock; he is only indirectly interested and effective in the actual management, operation and investment decision of the business. There is, therefore, small justification for giving him tax credit for the taxes paid by the company. This is at least partly recognized even in tax-credit giving countries like India and Pakistan, where the shareholder gets credit towards the company's payment of the income tax, but not towards the super taxes paid by the company.

The rates of taxation of companies on their taxable income vary. Thus, in India, while the companies initially pay tax at rates varying between 37 and 56 per cent (standard rate of income tax 26.25 per cent and supertaxes varying from 11 to 29.7 per cent depending on whether the company is a private or public company and whether it distributes dividends in or outside India), the effective rate is only the supertax rate for distributed profits as a result of the tax credit at the standard rate of 26.25 per cent to shareholders as dividends received. Pakistan charges 31.25 per cent on income tax and in addition the companies pay a small surcharge on income tax. The companies also pay a super-tax of 25 per cent. As in India, on dividends received, shareholders are given a tax credit for the income tax paid by the companies, but not for the supertax. Ceylon charges resident companies at the rate of 30 per cent, and a full rebate of tax is given to the shareholders on dividends received. In these countries a gradual elimination of the tax credits deserves consideration. If the tax credits are to be eliminated, the rates of company tax may also have to be raised. In Indonesia, the company rates range from 40 per cent on profits up to Rp 500,000 to 52 1/2 per cent on profits above Rp 2.5 million. The Philippine corporations are taxed at 20 per cent for income not exceeding P100,000 and 28 per cent above that level.

The main "loopholes" in the legislation of company taxes are in respect of capital gains discussed above. These encourage speculative investments which are made possible by the favourable tax treatment of undistributed reserves in an inflationary situation. Similarly the main "loophole" in the administration of the company taxes is the inadequate attention given to the expenses which are deductible from gross income to arrive at net income. It has been stated that as company tax rates rise, there arises, to some extent, a tendency towards inefficiency and wastage. Needless managerial and research expenses may be incurred; a chain of intermediaries may be set up in the normal channels of supply of materials and sale of products and derive commissions at the company's expense; to some extent, the directors may be able to obtain concealed incomes by way of perquisites which are "tax deductible". Such waste or concealed personal incomes can be discouraged by a more thorough scrutiny of expense accounts. The question whether this purpose can be achieved by laying down the maximum of "tax deductible" expense ratios to total sales or gross incomes, taking into account the specific conditions of the operation of each industry, may also be considered.

Business taxes: A possible increase in the rate scale of personal and company taxes raises the question whether there are any business taxes levied on enterprises. On the whole, there are no significant licence taxes in Asia. The most important business taxes are import and export taxes, and recently introduced sales taxes. The duties on necessary raw materials and machinery are low as a matter of policy in most countries. Export taxes as a complement to taxes on profits and incomes were used in Malaya, India and Ceylon following the post-Korean war boom in raw material exports. These taxes were in the nature of windfall profits taxes. The export taxes were proportional to the volume or value of exports, and the enterprises paid income taxes on the net profits obtained after paying the export duties. An export tax may be unfair to the enterprise because, unlike income tax, it is paid irrespective of whether the enterprise is making profits or losses. On the other hand, these taxes, as part of the regular tax structure, have been generally low or have been levied as a quick response to a situation when the industry was earning abnormally high profits.

Land taxes

The traditional taxes on the cultivation of land are levied in China, India, Burma, Pakistan and Indonesia. Ceylon, Malaya and Thailand, instead of levying land taxes, levy export duties on their principal export crops.

The Philippines have neither export taxes on agricultural produce nor land taxes. It has instead a general tax on real property.

With the wartime and post-war rise in the general price level and particularly in the prices of agricultural products, the "burden" of land taxes has declined as compared with the pre-war period. Correspondingly, the share of land taxes in the revenue of the government has also declined. Taking the combined revenues of the central and State governments of India and Pakistan, for instance, the share of land taxes was reduced from 12.7 per cent of total revenues in 1938/39 to about 5.4 per cent in 1949/50.

Agriculture is carried out in large plantations on an economic (as distinct from subsistence) basis only in respect of certain export crops in India and Indonesia. By far the larger part of agricultural output is produced by small peasants or tenant cultivators producing in farm strips of such small size that if they were allocated anything better than a subsistence wage for their labour and the labour of their families, the farms would not break even. In short, the most characteristic feature of agriculture in these large countries of Asia is the prevalence of subsistence cultivation.

Land taxes were originally intended to tax the landowners—as a sort of property tax. The extremely weak position of the tenant cultivator has actually meant a shifting of the final burden from the landlord to the tenant. The tax does not take into account the taxable capacity based on the size of the holding and as such the small peasant with an un-economic strip of land is also forced to pay the tax out of the meagre returns for his labour.

In the period of its administration over decades, land tax has come to be assessed on a rough estimation of a long-term average of gross or net returns; however, it retains its characteristics of non-progressivity with respect to the levels of the taxpayers' incomes, inflexibility with respect to the annual fluctuations in incomes, lack of provision for exemptions for minimum incomes or family responsibilities, and absence of discrimination between earned and unearned incomes.

Because of its incidence on subsistence cultivation and its rigid character, a fiscal policy for economic development involves a reform of the taxation of agriculture. The defects of the land tax have been realized. To introduce progression the State governments in India and Pakistan have sought in recent years to apply the income tax to agricultural income and to levy progressive surcharges on the land tax. However, the still considerable volume of revenues from the tax, and the long-established rural machinery for its administration appear to have prevented any large-scale changes in the system towards lifting the burden on subsistence cultivation. The taxation of subsistence levels ultimately depletes the human capital which is simultaneously the end and means of economic development.

The question arises whether a rationalization of land tax can be achieved by the application to land of a combination of property tax, income tax, betterment tax, capital gains tax and taxes on unutilized or unimproved land. The present assessment machinery might be adapted for the administration of the property tax. By a process of controlling rents, it might be possible to prevent shifting of the property tax to the tenants. Property tax would also permit exemption of taxation of the very small plots of land owned by peasant cultivators.

Agricultural income taxes have been introduced in a few States in India and Pakistan. But the revenues have been small because the present levels of income tax do not affect any but the highest incomes and the rates applicable to these taxable incomes are low. If the scope of the income tax is expanded it may be worth while to re-train and utilize the present land-revenue staff for a specially devised simple system of income taxation.

Economic development in Asia is likely to benefit agriculture directly and thus increase land values. As this increment is directly the result of development projects benefiting agriculture, the State may finance the cost of development partly by charging the beneficiaries a tax. This tax is commonly known as land-betterment tax. Where the benefit to the landlord is not directly a product of a specific development project but represents capital gains from general economic development and/or inflationary pressures, the question arises whether the windfall profits of the landlord can be taxed on the basis of capital gains.

If it is decided to levy a betterment tax, it can be incorporated into the assessment for property tax, and can, therefore, be an annual tax. It can also be levied as a one-time tax on the proprietor irrespective of whether he sells the land or not. The problem of administering betterment taxes is related only to lands directly benefiting from specific development projects. A windfall gains tax, on the other hand, would apply more generally to all land. The question of administering it on the basis of an annual net worth tax would present serious difficulties. On the other hand, capital

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gains may be taxed at the time of sale. If this is so, it may be necessary to consider whether to tax all capital gains equally, or discriminate against capital gains on speculative land sales. If the latter is the case, the amount of tax on capital gains may be related to the period for which the asset was held by the seller. At this stage, theoretically capital gains tax might be linked to income taxation by taxing the proprietor at the rate at which he would have been taxed on his income if he had been able to realize his increment every year. This would mean an averaging of capital gains over the period during which the asset was held and taxing each annual portion at the rate appropriate to the total income of the seller during such years. If this is considered to be too complicated, the total gain may be taxed at the time of sale with progressive discounts increasing with the number of years the property had been held. This is aimed at cutting down land speculation arising from the inflationary pressures during a period of economic development.

While taxing the windfall gains, care should be taken to ensure that exemptions are given for the land improvements brought about by the proprietor through his own effort or investment. Such improvements may even be encouraged by tax concessions on the proprietor's other tax liabilities such as the income tax or the property tax. An additional measure for direct agricultural improvement successfully used by several Latin American countries is the tax on unused or unimproved land. Such a tax would stimulate absentee landlords to let out their lands for cultivation, and thus make available an increased supply of food or raw materials.

The combined revenues from these taxes might offset the loss of revenues from the rationalization of the land tax. In any case, these taxes should yield progressively more revenues as economic development proceeds; and they are less inequitable and indiscriminate than the present land taxes.

Inheritance taxes

The justification for levying death duties to prevent an undue concentration of wealth and economic power has been amply stated and widely recognized even in countries where such taxation does not exist. At the present time such taxation in the region exists only in the Philippines, Ceylon, Malaya and British Borneo and Hong Kong. The Philippines have a combination of estate, inheritance and gift taxes. The British Colonies have only death duties. Owing to the extremely low rates and very high basic exemptions, the revenue from these taxes has been small.

Despite the general poverty, the maldistribution of incomes and wealth is much sharper in the Asian countries than in the advanced western countries. Huge concentrations of wealth at death pass undiminished from one generation to another in Pakistan, India, Burma, Indonesia and Thailand. India has been recently considering the introduction of death duties. The bill is based on the British pattern of death duties without a combination of inter-vivos gift taxes as in the United States. The time given in the British system for inter-vivos gifts to escape death duties is five years; in India, only a period of two years has been proposed. The prevalence of the joint family system over a large area of the wealth-owning class with close control of the head of the family over the entire fortunes, irrespective of the legal titles of other members of the family, the short period required before death for tax-free inter-vivos gifts, and the high basic exemption of Rs 100,000 (equal to 400 times the national *per capita* annual income) are likely to make the measure inconspicuous from the revenue standpoint, and ineffective from the standpoint of reducing significant inequalities of wealth. The rate scales have not yet been prescribed. The general practice in the rest of the countries of the region where such taxes are in operation is to prescribe fairly low rates.

The main problems to be considered in framing an estate tax are treatment of gifts given during life, graduation by relationship, exemption of a minimum level (mostly for administrative reasons), provision for dependents and tax credit for frequent transfers. As for the rate scales, the tax may permit much more progressivity than the income tax. It has relatively less serious effects on effort and investment than the income tax at similar rates, and it is more selective in dealing with concentration of wealth and economic power than an income tax dealing only with current incomes. Finally, as mentioned above, it solves, to some extent, the problem of taxing the large accumulations of wealth in the form of stockholdings in companies accumulating undistributed profits which escape from being assessed at the relatively higher rates of personal income tax.

Social security taxes

The above sections reviewed the existing taxes. In addition to these, social security schemes might be considered as a possible measure for future development. It is interesting to not that they have been quite significant in Latin America.

In the Asian countries, social security legislation can be applied only to plantations and other industrial and commercial large-scale establishments, public authorities, etc. Despite the relative smallness of this sector, the employer and employee contributions could add up to sizable revenues during the earlier part of the development programmes. In the Latin Amerian countries the magnitude of revenues raised through social security taxes is significant. In the years for which the latest statistics are available—1950 or 1951—, Colombia raised a little less than 1 per cent of its national income in social security taxes; the percentages for Argentina and Chile were 1.3 and 1.6 respectively. Owing to the smallness of the large-scale enterprise sector in the national economies, the maximum revenue for India or Indonesia might approximate about 1/2 per cent of their national income; the percentage could be higher for the plantation economies of Ceylon and Malaya.

If it is considered desirable to introduce social security legislation the collection of the tax can be organized through the establishments by way of deduction from pay rolls. The most important question, however, is whether the tax on employees would not bear on subsistence workers. This is unlikely because the employees of large-scale enterprises are generally organized in trade unions, and secure for themselves wages much higher than the average incomes earned by the masses of the small peasant or tenant cultivators, and unorganized agricultural and other casual or seasonal labour. Secondly, if it is found impracticable to reduce the minimum income level for the application of income tax, at least, the organized workers can be covered by social security taxes. Finally, the repayments in social security benefits may be expected to occur in bulk at a later period when economic development would make it easier to provide for an expansion of social service benefits.

Social security operations are generally organized in semi-independent agencies, with powers of taxation, investment of funds and disbursements of benefits. The funds of social security agencies are managed under statutory limitations, and are generally invested in fixed-income yielding assets, such as government securities, real estate, etc. These funds can be a very useful instrument of economic development if their use is properly co-ordinated with the investment policy of the government. If it is generally desired to restrict real estate investment in favour of industrial investment, the legislation of the social security agencies should permit the government to require these agencies to refrain from bidding up real estate values or claiming resources for residential or other consumer capital construction. Similarly, the economic impact of social security taxes can be co-ordinated with the general fiscal and monetary policies of the government.

OUTLOOK

To sum up, if the under-developed countries of Asia are to raise their national *per capita* incomes, a much higher rate of investment than at present would be required. If domestic savings or net imports do not increase, such a programme of development would cause inflation. A persistent inflation is likely to defeat the development programme by the distortion of investment which it leads to and by the extremely inequitable burdens it imposes on some while making increased consumption possible for others. Inflation may be avoided by obtaining external assistance and increasing domestic savings. The immediate prospects for the former are not very hopeful. Increased domestic savings as a result of consumer thrift and voluntary savings by the private business sectors may continue to be limited in the present circumstances. This leaves taxation as a primary financial instrument of mobilizing resources for economic development.

In the light of this, the present status of revenue has been reviewed. The difficulties created by the precarious balance of payments situation in securing adequate revenues from customs duties—except for the food-exporting countries, Burma and Thailand—have been noted. It has also been noted that the countries are already taking steps to obtain more revenue from the excises on liquor and tobacco. Only in India, in some of the States, prohibition has been adopted and consequently revenue from the sale of liquor has to be sacrificed..

The question, therefore, arises as to what possible lines of development could be considered. Some of the possibilities and problems in the development of sales taxes, income taxes, property and inheritance taxes and social security taxes have been reviewed. It is needless to add that a paper of this size cannot do adequate justice to the complexity of the issues involved. It cannot properly take into account the institutional framwork of the different economies, the composition of political forces, the distribution of legislative powers and administrative responsibilities. If a careful evaluation of these factors leads to the conclusion that the present revenue system permits of future development, it might provide one way of escaping from the dilemma of either the inability to implement development or attempting to do so with inflation.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN MAINLAND CHINA, 1949-53[1]

SUMMARY

When the Central People's Government was established in October 1949 its immediate problem was to secure peace and order, and to restore production seriously diminished by the civil war. Prices were stabilized and the budget balanced, transport restored, and measures taken against the recurrence of flood or drought.

The means which were used to increase production aimed also at preparing the way for basic changes of structure and for socialization; the measure of socialization achieved in agriculture cannot be assessed as yet, but in industry and business it has proceeded rapidly, and state enterprises in industry, transport, banking and trade are now predominant.

Favourable weather and better farming methods have increased agricultural production, and the extension of peasant proprietorship, following an expropriation of landlords, has acted as an incentive. However, land redistribution has brought problems of efficient farming on scattered holdings, and the government has tried hard to organize peasants in mutual aid teams for joint use of draft animals and tools, thus also paving the way for socialization. These schemes have raised questions of the best use of pooled resources and the proper division of proceeds which have yet to be resolved.

In spite of the strain imposed by the participation of "Chinese People's Volunteers" in the Korean conflict, rigid control maintained prices stability, and rehabilitation of the economy proceeded, helped by exhortations to the people to redouble their efforts. It is claimed that by 1952 agricultural and industrial production had reached or exceeded the pre-1949 peak, and production targets have been published for 1953, the first year of the Five-Year Plan.

External economic relations have changed considerably. The embargo in May 1951 by members of the United Nations on the supply of strategic materials was followed by a notable expansion of trade with the USSR and Eastern Europe. The composition of trade has also altered. China has ceased to import rice, wheat and wheat flour, tobacco, gunny sacks and other formerly important goods, and has even become an exporter of some of them; imports of industrial equipment and raw materials, on the other hand, have increased considerably, coming mainly from the USSR and Eastern Europe. The Five-Year Plan for industrialization implies further increases in imports of capital goods, especially heavy engineering equipment, entailing substantial exports of food grains and primary products in return. Strains arising from the industrialization programme are expected to be reduced by the economic and technical assistance recently extended by the USSR.

1. The present note covers the period beginning with the establishment of the Central People's Government in Peking on 1 October 1949. The information is based on official and semi-official sources, which give production and other changes in relative, not absolute, terms.

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INTRODUCTION

The years since 1949 have witnessed a rapid recovery of production in mainland China. Heavy output losses had been caused by the war and civil war but the subsequent recovery was substantial and the rate of production of the principal commodities (except coal) is reported to have by 1952 exceeded the pre-1949[1] peaks by a fair margin.

Recovery was helped by many factors of which the most important single one, no doubt, was the restoration of peace and order. Although the existing production facilities of the country were so seriously under-utilized in 1949, the year of the nation-wide civil war, the recovery potential was so large that it only needed more orderly conditions and an effective government for production to be restored. There is little doubt, however, that institutional changes have also had an important bearing on the economic recovery since 1949, and it may be pertinent therefore to give a short account of the changes which have altered the framework of the Chinese economy in the course of the last few years.

CHANGES IN ECONOMIC STRUCTURE

A first change is the completion of land reform. It aimed at the elimination of the landlord class through confiscation of their land and the redistribution of such land among the landless and land-poor peasants who are estimated to have constituted about 70 per cent of the farm population. Towards the end of September 1952, the land reform was officially reported to have been carried out in areas with a total population of about 300 million. In some other areas, land reform had been carried out already before the advent of the People's Government and by 1952 over 90 per cent of the rural population benefitted by land reform. In the meantime, there has been further progress in some of the remaining areas, particularly Kwangtung, and it is now mainly national minority areas such as Tibet and Sinkiang that are still outstanding.[2]

The land reform is claimed to have redistributed 700 million shih mou (1 shih mou=1/6 acre or 1/15 hectare) or one half of the total cultivated land to the peasants and freed them from the payment of rent to the landlords which in terms of food amounted to 50 million tons or one third of the total output in 1952, thus providing an incentive for increased production.[3] The peasant, however, has to pay a land tax which on the average was to be 19 per cent of the total agricultural income in 1950.[4]

Because of the high man-land ratio in China, the size of farms has been extremely small and is estimated to have amounted only to 3.76 acres or 1.52 hectares during the period 1929-1933.[5] It is also to be borne in mind that in China, each individual farm is composed of many scattered strips. To cope with this impediment to efficient farming and high productivity, the government is promoting organized farming, which constitutes a further change in the economic structure of mainland China.

Organized farming, aiming at collectivization of agriculture, takes generally the form of mutual aid teams. These teams, organized largely on a seasonal or temporary basis, were developed in communist-controlled and other areas in earlier years to meet the needs of small-scale farming, and have been greatly extended since the establishment of the Central People's Government, side by side with land reform. According to official estimates, by the middle of 1953, two out of every five peasants in mainland China were organized in mutual aid teams.[6] The regular year round mutual aid teams, on the other hand, are as yet relatively insignificant; they have made, however, a start in combining the pooling of labour in agriculture with mutual aid in subsidiary occupations, have mapped out simple production

1. The "pre-liberation" or "pre-war" peak relates to the maximum annual output reached before 1949, that is, the year of establishment of the Central People's Government. For most agricultural and industrial products in mainland China, excluding the north-eastern provinces, the peak was reached in 1936; in the north-eastern provinces, it was generally reached in 1943; for the country as a whole, the pre-1949 peak was reached in different years in the case of different commodities. See article by Sung Shao-Wen, Director of the Central Financial and Economic Planning Board, in *People's Daily*, Peking, 6 October 1951. For the north-east region (i.e. Manchuria), Kao Kang, Chairman of the North-east People's Government, in his report of 13 March 1950, stated that "with regard to the rehabilitation work carried out by us, public industrial enterprises succeeded in restoring their production in 1949 to around 29 per cent of the level reached in 1943 by the Japanese and the "puppet" regime (not taking into account, however, badly damaged plants, the restoration of which was either very difficult or even impossible)". The remark in parenthesis tends to support the view that the post-1949 figures compiled on the basis of "pre-liberation" or "pre-1949" peaks, which appear to have been understated in some cases, are too high and do not agree with the available information on factors affecting the industrial production in mainland China.

2. Liao Lu-yen (Deputy Secretary-General of the Government Administration Council of the Central People's Government), "A Great Victory in Land Reform during the Past Three Years", in *New China's Economic Achievements, 1949-52* (China Committee for the Promotion of International Trade, Peking) 1952, p. 165; *Ta Kung Pao*, Hong Kong, 24 April 1953; *People's China*, 16 April 1953.

3. Teng Tze-hui, (Director, Rural Work Department, Central Committee, Chinese Communist Party), "Rural Work: Its Basic Mission and Policy", (address before the Second National Congress of the New Democratic Youth League, 2 July 1953), in *People's Daily*, Peking, 23 July 1953.

4. *Minister of Finance's Report on the Compilation of the Draft National Budget for 1950*, made at the 4th meeting of the Central People's Government Administration Council on 2 December 1949.

5. John Lossing Buck: *Land Utilization in China* (Commercial Press, Shanghai, 1937), page 268.

6. Teng, *op. cit.*

plans, and—with the acquisition, in some cases, of common equipment in the form of draft animals and of tools—have begun to introduce improvements in methods of cultivation.

Mutual aid teams, which are expected to facilitate the introduction and application of improved farm techniques, have incidentally given rise to several practical issues including, *inter alia*, (1) the establishment of work priorities and the consequent allocation of manpower and equipment, and (2) the determination of exchange ratios between different types of labour.[1]

The more advanced forms of organized farming, the agricultural producers' co-operatives, the collective farms and the State farms, are still very limited in number, but are expected to grow in importance. While government policy aims at "fully socialist large-sale mechanized collective farms",[2] so far only about 0.2 per cent of the total rural population participates in agricultural producers' co-operatives, and only about 0.3 per cent of all land now under cultivation is worked by State farms, including the few large mechanized farms and the more numerous small non-mechanized farms operated by local authorities.[3]

A third notable change is the growth in the number and size of State enterprises, some of which were taken over from the previous regime. Among the newly established State enterprises, the more notable are the People's Bank, the State trading companies for major exports and imports, the new railways (especially in North-west and South-west China) the new water conservancy projects, and the enterprises in the heavy and textile industries. It is officially reported that by October 1952 nationalization extended to about 80 per cent of the heavy industry, and 40 per cent of the light industry;[4] the government operated all the railways and about 60 per cent of the steamships plying in home waters; it controlled over 90 per cent of all loans and deposits through the People's Bank[5]; finally, State trading companies were responsible for about 90 per cent of imports and exports, for about half of the wholesale trade and for about 30 per cent of the retail trade.[6]

The area of effective government control of industrial production, however, was even greater than is indicated by the above figures. The allocation of raw materials and the extension of credit facilities to private enterprises enabled the authorities to control about three quarters of the total value of their production in the large industrial centres.[7]

While during the early months of 1952 private traders suffered a severe setback, as a result of the governments's "five antis" campaign,[8] later in the year a more liberal policy was adopted and in November State trading companies were directed to confine their retail trading to the minimum required to meet the needs of price stabilization.

The growth of State enterprises enabled the government to encourage the production of export commodities and of capital goods while curtailing the production of luxury and non-essential items. Furthermore, planned purchases, the fixing of favourable price ratios, and the supply by the state trading companies of incentive goods like cotton textiles have helped to encourage the production of major agricultural crops such as food and raw cotton.

There are indications that lack of trained personnel, bottlenecks encountered both in the planning stage and in the timely supply of manpower, materials, spare parts and equipment have led in many cases to waste and inefficiency.

A fourth change is the rapid growth of the co-operative movement in the field of private distribution. In the second quarter of 1952, there were 36,482 co-operatives in the country with a reported total membership of more than 106 million, of which over 95 million members[9] (or 20 per cent of the total rural population) were in the rural supply and marketing co-operatives, and 11 million (or 23 per cent of the population of the big cities of Peking, Tientsin, Shanghai, Hankow, Mukden, Canton and Chungking) in the urban consumers'

1. "The Question of Division of Profits among Members of Mutual Aid Teams as tackled in the North-east", New China News Agency (hereafter abbreviated as NCNA), Mukden, 5 July 1953.
2. Teng, *op. cit.*
3. "Vital Issues in Leadership of Agricultural Production', editorial in *People's Daily*, Peking, 26 March 1953.
4. Through progressive nationalization of industry and the building up of new government enterprises, the government increased its share in industrial production between 1950 and 1952 from 44 per cent to 67 per cent. (*World Economic Report 1951-52*, United Nations, April 1953, p. 52).
5. The People's Bank, with its nation-wide network of branches, is reported to have a personnel of over 300,000. (*Ta Kung Pao*, Tientsin, 24 March 1953). In the meantime, on 26 December 1952, about 60 private and semi-public banks and trust companies were amalgamated into a single centralized control organ known as the Joint Private and Public Bank, with headquarters in Peking. Through it, the Central Bank enforces its policy in, and conducts business with, the private sector in industry and commerce. (*Ta Kung Pao*, Hong Kong, 19 January and 24 May 1953).
6. Hsueh Mu-chiao (member of the Committee on Financial and Economic Affairs of the Government Adminnistration Council of the Central People's Government), "China's Great Victories on the Economic Front during the Past Three Years," in *New China's Economic Achievements, 1949-52*, p. 281.
7. *World Economic Report*, 1951-52, p. 52.
8. The 'five antis' or 'Wu fan' is a movement among industralists and traders against (1) bribery of government workers, (2) tax evasion, (3) theft of State property, (4) cheating on government contracts, and (5) fraudulent acquisition of economic information for private speculation.
9. Each family may have been represented by several members, and members from the same family may have joined several co-operatives at the same time.

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co-operative.[1] However, only 10 per cent of the nation's total retail trade in 1952 was transacted by the co-operatives, though these co-operatives handled between 60 and 70 per cent of the total quantity of agricultural products bought by the State.[2]

RECOVERY OF PRODUCTION

Factors for recovery

Aside from the restoration of peace and order and the institutional changes within the Chinese economy, the following developments are worth noting as having contributed to the recovery of agriculture and industry.

The first is the improvement and expansion in *water conservancy work*,[3] which initially aimed at reducing the damage to crops arising from recurrent floods on China's principal rivers but which has been gradually extended to cover irrigation, navigation, and power generation. Millions of peasants participated in the momentous task of rehabilitating the existing dykes and building the new ones. The extent of flooding during the high water period in 1949 amounted to more than 100 million shih mou of land. This figure was reduced, as a result of flood control work but also owing to favourable weather conditions, to 60 million shih mou in 1950, 21 million shih mou in 1951, and 16 million shih mou in 1952.[4]

By September 1953, the irrigated areas had been expanded by about 46 million shih mou, and irrigation and draining installations had been rehabilitated or repaired in the existing 210 million shih mou of land.[5] On the Hwai river, the first large-scale multiple purpose river basin development project was initiated in 1950 and is expected to be completed in 1955. It will affect an area of 270,000 km² and a population of approximately 60 million. The flood menace is reported to have been conquered, though silting remains an important problem; work is now in progress to utilize the water resources for the irrigation of 50 million shih mou of farm land, for the improvement of 2,000 km of navigable waterways, and for the establishment of a number of hydro-electric power stations to serve agriculture and industry.[6]

A second factor has been the *rehabilitation and improvement of transport*. During the three years of the People's Republic, up to 1 October 1952, more than 10,000 km of railway routes were restored, and an additional length of 1,255 km of new railways built or completed in the North-west and South-west (including the Chengtu-Chungking line in Szechwan province, the Laiping-Chennankwan line in Kwangsi province, and the Tienshui-Lanchow line in Kansu province). Altogether 23,785 km of railways were in operation. The new lines under construction in 1953 include the Lanchow-Sinkiang Railway which upon completion will connect China with the Soviet Union.

During the three years ending 1 October 1952, 32,438 km of highways were repaired and 11,000 km of new roads constructed, thus bringing the total length of highways in service to 107,438 km.[7]

While the freight handled by State-owned road transport was increasing rapidly, it still accounted for a mere 4 per cent of the total (see table 1).[8]

To meet the needs for technicians and administrators at all levels, a thorough *overhaul of the educational system* has been carried out. The number of colleges and faculties for engineering, agronomy, medicine,

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1. Cheng, Tse-hua (Vice-Director of the All China Federation of Co-operatives), 'Three Years' Achievement of the Co-operative Movement in New China', in *New China's Economic Achievements, 1949-52*, pp. 245 ff.
The detailed distribution of societies and memberships by types is given below:

	Societies	*Membership*
Rural supply and marketing ...	31,953	95,460,000
Urban consumers	3,340	11,000,000
Producers	1,076	200,000
Others	113	108,000
Total	36,482	106,768,000

In addition, there are now 27,433 rural credit societies in the country of which 5,559 are credit cooperatives, 2,643 are crelit departments of the rural supply and marketing co-operatives and 19,231 are mutual aid credit teams (from which may emerge the full-fledged credit co-operatives at a later stage). These societies, while helping to supplement the loans from the local branches of the People's Bank, do not appear to have adequately met the credit requirements of the peasants. The gap created by the elimination of landlords and decline of private money lenders has not yet been completely filled, and constitutes one of the bottlenecks limiting the expansion of agricultural production. (Editorial in *People's Daily*, Peking, 6 August 1953).

2. *People's Daily*, Peking, 6 January 1953.

3. On this, the State is reported to have spent during 1950-52 and will be spending in 1953 a total sum of PBY.12,717,000 million *(Finance Minister's Report on the 1953 State Budget.)*

4. Fu, Tso-yi (Minister of Water Conservancy), 'Great Achievements in China's Water Conservancy Work during the Past Three Years', in *New China's Economic Achievements, 1949-52*, pp. 195-198. It may be noted that the average annual flooded area of the major river basins in mainland China is 42.5 million shih mou as shown below (1 shih mou=1/6 acre or 1/15 ha).

	Km2	
Hai River	2,330	(1918-1939)
Hwai River ...	3,710	(1852-1935)
Yangtze River ...	19,300	(estimated by Yangtze River Commission)
Yellow River ...	2,318	(1855-1935)
Pearl River ...	656	(1915-1949)
	28,314	(= 42.5 million shih mou).

In this connexion, it is pertinent to note the directive issued by the Central Anti-Flood Headquarters in Peking in May 1953, which stated that "it must be recognized that gradual reduction of flood disasters during the past three years, while attributable to a certain extent to water conservancy projects, is mainly due to natural conditions, since except in individual river valleys, no excessive rainfalls and no abnormal flood occurred during this period."

5. Fu Tso-yi, (Minister of Water Conservancy), Report to the 186th meeting of the Government Administration Council on farmland and conservancy work (China News Service despatch from Peking, 11 September 1953). The total area under irrigation as given by the Minister on 7 December 1952 was 450 million shih mou, including 80 million shih mou of "area irrigated" and 370 million shih mou of "wet land".

6. Fu, in *New China's Economic Archievements, 1949-52*.

7. Po I-po (Member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China), "Three Years of Achievements of the People's Republic of China", in *New China's Economic Achievements, 1949-52*, p. 159.
Republic of China", in *New China's Economic Achievements*,

8. Po I-po (Finance Minister), *Report on the 1953 State Budget* delivered at the 23rd session of the Government Administration Council of the Central People's Government on 12 February 1953 (NCNA, Peking, 16 February 1953, in *Ta Kung Pao*, Hong Kong, 18 February 1953).

teachers' training etc. were considerably increased during 1949-1952. The added emphasis on engineering education led to an increase in the proportion of engineering students from about 19 per cent in 1946 to 35 per cent of enrolled students, in 1952.[1] The total number of students in teachers' training colleges during the second half of 1952 was about 90 per cent above 1946. A large number of secondary technical schools have also been set up to meet the demands of rapid economic development.

1. Tseng Chao-lun (Vice-Minister of Higher Education) "Educational Work of New China", (NCNA, Peking, 14 June 1953).

Agricultural production

Agricultural production in mainland China fell to a very low level in 1949 (See tables 2 and 3).

TABLE 1
VOLUME OF TRAFFIC CARRIED BY STATE-OWNED RAIL, ROAD AND WATER TRANSPORT IN 1952

	Million t/km	Percentage increase over 1951	Million tons	Percentage increase over 1951
Rail transport	59,461	15.4	131.0	18.5
Road transport	255	89.5	4.0	140.4
Water transport	3,961	45.6	5.3	49.6

TABLE 2
AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION, 1949-52
(Pre-1949 peak=100)

	1949	1950	1951	1952
Food crops[a]	78.5	91.8	100.5	109.9
Rice[b]	75	97	99	110
Wheat[b]	72	80	89	101
Raw cotton[c]	52	83	131	156

a. The term "food" ('liang-shih') includes: Rice, wheat, barley, oats, kaoliang (sorghum), millet, proso-millet, corn, soybeans, peas, broad beans, peanuts, sesamum and potatoes. For these crops, the Ministry of Agriculture placed the 1949 production at 110 million tons or 78.5 per cent of the pre-1949 peak. Taking 1949 as 100, the indices for subsequent years were 117 for 1950, 128 for 1951 and 140 for 1952 (see NCNA despatch, Peking, 20 September 1952). However, in the Minister of Finance's *Report on the 1953 State Budget* released on 12 February 1953, it was stated that food production for 1952 had reached the record high of 164 million tons, as compared with the Ministry of Agriculture's estimate of 154 million tons.

b. 1949 and 1950 estimates as given in an article on "Two years' Significant Achievements in Agriculture" by Liang Chin-chih, in *Popular Agriculture* (in Chinese), Peking, Feb. 1952 and quoted in *People's Handbook 1952*, Ta Kung Pao, Shanghai, pp. 332-333. These estimates, like those for 1951 and 1952, are from the Central Committee on Financial and Economic Affairs as noted in *People's China* (Peking), *People's Daily* (Peking) and *Ta Kung Pao* (Shanghai) (see *World Economic Report, 1951-52*, p. 52)

c. *World Economic Report, 1951-52*, p. 52, quoting figures from the Central Committee on Financial and Economic Affairs.

TABLE 3
FOOD AND COTTON PRODUCTION 1949-53

	Cotton[a] (1,000 tons)	Food[b] (1,000,000 tons)
Pre-1949 peak	825	140[d]
1949	430	110
1950	685	129
1951	1,080	141
1952	1,290[c]	154

a. The pre-1949 peak of 825,000 tons was given in *People's Daily*, Peking, 7 October 1949 from which are derived the figures for 1949-52 according to the rates of increase given in Table 2 for these years.

b. Calculated on the basis of 1949 figure and indices given in footnote (a) under Table 2.

c. From *infra*, tables 4 and 8, the target for cotton yarn production in 1953 is 53 per cent above the pre-1949 peak which occurred in 1931. On the other hand raw cotton availability for 1953, if estimated to include the domestic production of 1,290,000 tons in 1952, would be 84 per cent above the 1931 availability of raw cotton (516,000 tons from 1930 production and net imports of 185,000 tons in 1931). Making allowances for inadequate reporting of the 1930 production of raw cotton and for possible increase in 1953 consumption of raw cotton for non-mill consumption purposes such as padding etc., the raw cotton production in 1952 appears to have been more than sufficient for 1953 consumption. The reported imports from Pakistan and other countries are difficult to reconcile with these figures unless part of the 1952 raw cotton production was exported to the USSR and Eastern Europe.

d. This peak is close to the sum of 1931-1937 average of 126 million tons for the 22 provinces and 1935-1938 average of 17 million tons for Manchuria. Source: Shen, T.H., *Agricultural Resources of China*, Cornell University Press, Ithaca, New York, 1951, pages 374-75, 382. Information given is based on estimates by the National Agricultural Research Bureau for the 22 provinces and by *Japan Manchoukuo Yearbook 1941* for Manchuria.

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According to official estimates, the increase in agricultural production since 1949 has been rapid; in 1952, an increase of 10 per cent over the pre-1949 peak has been reported for all food crops and of 56 per cent for cotton. Steps taken by the Central People's Government since 1949 to improve the food situation included efforts (1) to increase planted acreage and yield, especially the latter by improved agricultural methods; (2) to establish State control of food supplies by accumulating large government stocks; (3) to guarantee food supplies to industrial centres and famine-stricken areas; (4) to stabilize prices by controlling supply and demand in wholesale markets; (5) to encourage economy in food consumption, the use of more supplementary food (soybeans, broad beans, peas, peanuts, etc.), and the reduction of wastage in processing, storage and transportation. The most significant development in the marketing of food since the Central People's Government came to power in 1949 has been the rapid expansion of State trade at the expense of private dealers, and, at present, a major portion of the wholesale food business is under State control. The distribution of food has improved as a result of the absence of transportation dislocations that plagued mainland China during the period 1937-49. Grain prices have remained relatively stable since 1950, largely as a result of State transactions and control, although in comparison with pre-war and early post-war years the terms of exchange between food prices and manufactured goods were not favourable. Good weather during the years 1950-52 has contributed substantially to the recovery of production.

On the other hand, factors adverse to agricultural development were the shortage of farm credit facilities due to the elimination of private credit and the inadequacy of agricultural loans granted by State banking and financial agencies, the shortage of agricultural implements, fertilizers, seeds, draft animals, etc., the stifling effect of high agricultural taxes and the repercussions of a series of drastic social and economic changes.[1]

The Five-Year Plan as announced in February 1952 provided for an increase of 9 per cent for food production in 1953 over 1952. The planned increase was to be achieved by increasing yields and by restricting the planting of crops other than food crops. This target had to be lowered, however, in the face of crop failure in a number of wheat producing provinces,[2] to 6 per cent.[3]

With respect to cotton, poor weather, rather than the civil war, was responsible for the low level of output in 1949. The official estimates reproduced in table 3 above claim a three-fold increase from 1949 to 1952, bringing output to a level more than 40 per cent higher than the pre-1949 peak.

However, throughout the period, output of cotton yarn, which is claimed to have exceeded the pre-1949 peak by 40 per cent in 1952, appears to have been limited by raw cotton supplies. Thus while the 1950 cotton production of 685,000 tons was claimed to be adequate to meet the country's needs, raw cotton imports in that year constituted about 18 per cent of the total value of imports.[4] In 1951-52, despite further increase claimed for raw cotton production, imports, though of a smaller magnitude, from Pakistan, Brazil, Egypt, etc., were recorded.

According to official sources, some of the factors responsible for the rapid increase of cotton production were the fixing of a favourable price ratio between cotton and cereals, the expansion of the area cultivated, and the improvement of yield. The exchange ratios for the three cotton growing areas in mainland China from 1950 to 1952 were as follows:

Ratio of exchange for 0.5 kg of 7/8" cotton lint

	(in kg.)		
	1950	1951	1952
North China millet	4	4½	4½
Northwest China wheat	3½	4	4¾
Central South China wheat ..	3½	4	4¼

Cotton acreage, in terms of million shih mou, is claimed to have increased as follows: 39.3 in 1949, 56 in 1950, 80 in 1951 and 79 in 1952.[5]

According to official claims the yield per shih mou had increased from 21.3 shih chin (1 shih chin=0.5 kg) in 1949 to 25.5 shih chin in 1950, 26.6 shih chin in 1951 and 31.3 shih chin in 1952, owing largely to improved farming methods such as early sowing, the planting in rows instead of broadcasting, and increasing the number of plants per unit area.

1. In early 1953 the attention of the government was drawn to the migration of peasants to cities, as evidenced by the Government Administration Council's Directive on "Dissuasion of Peasants from Blind Influx into Cities", in NCNA, Peking, 17 April 1953. In the *New China Daily*, Chungking, 2 March 1953, it was pointed out in an article that "the reason why the majority of farmers abandoned their spring farming is due to their loss of self-confidence and their mistake in thinking, believing that farming is no longer profitable". The rural-urban migration appears to have been prompted by the desire for betterment of economic status owing to improved terms of employment in cities.

2. *People's Daily*, Peking, 17 May 1953.

3. Wu, Lun-hsi (Director of New China News Agency), "New China on the Road to Industrialization", in NCNA, Peking, 25 September, 1953 and *Ta Kung Pao*, Hong Kong, 1 October 1953.

4. 1950 is the only year for which figures relating to foreign trade have been officially released. The published figures however are confined to percentage breakdowns. See *Hsin Hua Monthly*, April 1951.

5. *Sources*—1949 figure: Lo Yu-chwan, (Vice-Minister of Agriculture) Report to the National Agricultural Production Conference; for 1950: NCNA despatches dated 20 and 29 September 1950; for 1951: Chen Yun, (Chairman, Central Committee on Financial and Economic Affairs) Financial and Economic Report to the Third Session of the People's Political Consultative Committee, 25 October 1951; for 1952: *Hsin Hua Jih Pao*, 26 April 1953.

While from 1949 to 1952 the production of cotton was accorded top priority, largely as a result of the need to supply the peasants with incentive goods, especially cotton textiles, for greater food production and later of the United Nations embargo in May 1951 on strategic exports to mainland China, there are now indications of a reversal of policy. While the revised target for 1953 still provides for an increase of 16 per cent in cotton production compared with 6 per cent for food, it is significant that the government has announced a reduction in the price of cotton in terms of grain crops.[1] This added emphasis on food production is due to a number of considerations. Food exports provide a considerable proportion of the foreign exchange required to pay for imports of capital goods. In 1950, over 23 per cent of the total value of exports was accounted for by food.[2] In order to meet the increasing import requirements of the country, food exports will have to be boosted. Furthermore, a reduction in the marketable farm surpluses is anticipated on account of land reform and the resulting rise in the consumption and emergency stocks of cultivators. Finally, the rapid progress of industrialization and the trend towards urbanization are expected to result in increased urban demand for staple food.[3]

Industrial production

The index of industrial production of the Central Committee on Financial and Economic Affairs, calculated on the basis of the output of 33 major industrial products, fell in 1949 to 56 per cent of the pre-1949 peak, but rose to 126 per cent in 1952. The production of investment goods according to the index had fallen to 30 in 1949 but reached 116 by 1952, while that of consumer goods had risen from 70 in 1949 to 132 in 1952.[4] The rise in the production of capital goods compared with consumer goods was modest, and it appears therefore that investment on a large scale will be required to create a solid foundation for an industrial economy. Government plans for 1953 provide for an increase in the value of total industrial production by 23 per cent over 1952, partly to be attained by a rise in labour productivity of about 15 per cent.[5]

Available figures for selected items show the following changes during the last three years 1950-52.[6] (see table 4).

Coal: Coal production is still below the pre-1949 peak of about 50 million tons, and strenuous efforts are being made to increase output. The largest mines in production are, according to size of output, Fushun in the Northeast, Kailan in the North and Fuhsin in the Northeast.

Among the new mines recently opened the most important are the open cast workings in the Fuhsin coal fields which are being developed along the lines of the Donets basin coal fields, and which are expectd to produce eventually upwards of 10 million tons.

In the North-east, nine new mechanized mines are being opened, one of which will have an annual production capacity of 1.5 million tons.[7] Other important mines being expanded or built include those in Tatung (Shansi province), Pinghsiang (Kiangsi province), etc.

Crude petroleum: Crude petroleum production in 1949 fell to 38 per cent of the pre-1949 peak, but increased to 51 per cent in 1950. In 1952 the production surpassed the pre-1949 peak rate of output by 19 per cent. Crude petroleum is produced in Yumen in the North-west. Some of the oil wells which had been developed in Yumen by the National Government in early years fell into disuse and at one time nearly 50 per cent of the total wells were derelict. On its establishment, the Central People's Government, assisted by experts from the Soviet Union, rehabilitated the derelict wells, and according to current reports oil production appears to be satisfactory.[8]

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1. "Directive of Central Committee on Financial and Economic Affairs on Price Ratio between Grain and Cotton", NCNA, 1 April 1953.
2. Including rice and paddy, coarse grains, soybeans, peanuts. See *infra*, table 6.
3. *People's Daily*, 11 April and 17 May 1953. In a recent address by the Director of the Rural Work Department of the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party, it was stated that the food production of 164 million tons in 1952 should be increased after two five-year plans to 275-300 million tons since the 1952 production gave a per capita food supply of only 300 kg, which was considered inadequate in the light of Lenin's proposal after the October revolution that the per capita food supply for the Soviet Union should be raised to 600 kg. (Teng, *op.cit.*)
4. *World Economic Report, 1951-52*, p. 52.
5. *China News Service*, Peking, 17 February 1953. Also, *infra*, table 8.
6. Pre-1949 peaks for iron and steel, coal, power and cotton textiles were given in "*Present economic situation in Communist China*" (in Japanese), compiled and published by Japan ECAFE Association, Tokyo, August 1953.
7. NCNA, Mukden, 21 May 1953.
8. China News Service, Lanchow, 12 November 1952 and 27 May 1953, Kiuchuan, 23 August 1953; *Ta Kung Pao*, Hong Kong, 24 May 1953.

TABLE 4

INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION, 1950-52

(Pre-1949 peak=100)

	1950	1951	1952
Electricity	78	117	143
Coal	59	77	95
Petroleum, crude	51	82	119
Pig iron	49	80	102
Steel ingots and castings	69	—	148
Structural steel	67	—	
Cement	66	115	133
Cotton yarn[a]	100	108	141
Cotton cloth	109	115	167
Paper	115	150	223
Sugar	48	90	119

Source: 1950 figures, except for sugar, are taken from an article contributed by Sung Shao-wen (Director of the Central Financial and Economic Planning Board), in *People's Daily*, Peking, 6 October 1951. 1950 figures for sugar are worked out on the basis of a report carried in *People's Daily*, Peking, 15 October 1951, which stated that China's sugar production showed an increase of 21 per cent in 1950 and was expected to show an increase of 51 per cent in 1951, when compared with the 1949 output. 1952 figures are taken from Wu Lun-hsi (Director of the Central News Agency), "New China on the Road to Industrialization", in *NCNA*, Peking, 25 September 1953. 1951 figures are worked out on the bsais of the "Communique on Rehabilitation and Development in National Economy, Culture and Education During 1952", issued by the State Statistical Bureau on 28 September 1953, in *NCNA*, Peking, 29 September 1953, which gives the 1951 and 1952 indices of production with the pre-1949 peak as base.

a. The index of cotton yarn production in mainland China is 72.40 for 1949, 100.30 for 1950, 108.33 for 1951 and 140.69 for 1952. Sources: 1949: Li Fu-Ch'un (Vice-Chairman of the Central Committee on Financial and Economic Affairs), Report dated 31 October 1951; 1950: Sung Shao-wen (Director of Central Financial and Economic Planning Board), article in *People's Daily*, Peking, 6 October 1951; 1951: Statement of the National Textile Industry Conference, in NCNA, Peking, 20 December 1951, that the 1952 target was set at 39 per cent above the pre-1949 peak, or 28.3 per cent above the actual production in 1951; 1952: Po I-po (Finance Minister), *Report on the 1953 State Budget*, which stated that the 1952 production was 29.87 per cent above the 1951 figure.

At Yenchang in Shensi, the oil fields have also been restored with USSR technical assistance and output in 1953 is expected to be 6½ times that in 1950.[1]

Elsewhere, extensive prospecting work is being carried out in the oil fields of Szechwan (South-west), Sinkiang (Wusu fields) and other northwestern provinces. In Sinkiang, prospecting in 1952 by Chinese and USSR experts of the Sino-Soviet Joint Stock Petroleum Company proved the existence of rich deposits in Tarim and Dzungaria basins south and north of the Tienshan ranges.[2]

The rehabilitation of the oil shale refinery No. 2 in Fushun in the North-east started in May 1953. This refinery, built under Japanese occupation during the war, has been idle for the past eight years, but it is expected to resume operations to produce petroleum products from oil shale by 1954.[3]

In the meantime three institutes have been or are being established for the training of technicians in oil mineralogy in Tientsin, Peking and Changchun, with a total enrolement of about 5,000 trainees.[4]

1. NCNA, Sian, 3 July 1953, Peking, 8 August 1953.
2. NCNA, Tihwa, 12 April 1953.
3. China News Service, Mukden, 23 May 1953; NCNA, Mukden, 8 June 1953; Fushun, 11 August 1953.
4. China News Service, Peking, 3 April 1953.

Electric power: Electric power production in 1949 fell to 72 per cent of the pre-1949 peak of 3,600 million KWH but increased to 78 per cent in 1950, 117 in 1951 and 143 in 1952. Appropriations in 1953 for electric power installations reached fivefold the figure for 1952.[5]

Several new plants are being built. In Fuhsin, the coal mining centre, one of China's largest thermal power plants is being expanded for completion in August 1953.[6] A modern thermal plant in Sian, the largest in the North-west, was started in November 1952, and is expected to increase the total power generation of the region by 50 per cent. The construction in Chungking of the biggest power plant in the South-west is well under way; production is expected to begin this year.[7] In the Central South a new plant in Chengchow, Honan province, will increase many times the existing generating capacity of the city.[8] In addition, a number of medium plants are under construction in Szechwan, Yunnan, Chekiang, Fukien, etc. Small plants are also being built in various cities scattered throughout the whole of China.[9]

5. NCNA, Peking, 20 February 1953. Taking the volume of capital construction in 1950 as 100, it rose to 175 in 1951 and 462 in 1952. (NCNA, Peking, 9 May 1953).
6. NCNA, Mukden, 13 March and 8 May 1953; Fuhsin, 19 August 1953; China News Service, Peking, 5 June 1953.
7. NCNA, Chungking, 10 May 1953; Peking, 3 August 1953.
8. NCNA, Kaifeng, 4 February 1953, Peking, 3 August 1953.
9. China News Service, Peking, 14 June 1953.

Iron and steel: The industry has made rapid strides during 1950-52, particularly in steel production. As compared with pre-1949 peaks of 1.9 million tons for pig iron and 0.8 million tons for steel, there has been up to 1952 an increase of 2 per cent in the production of pig iron and 48 per cent in the production of steel.

Iron and steel are now produced in 5 of the 6 regions in the following centres: Anshan and Penki in the North-east; Tientsin, Tangshan, Taiyuan and Peking in the North; Shanghai in the East; Wuhan in the Central South; and Chungking in the Southwest. The largest centre is Anshan, the rapidly growing steel city of China; recent construction activity in Anshan includes the erection of two open-hearth furnaces, and the completion of the first automatic blast furnace; a seamless tubing mill, a heavy rolling mill and a sheet steel mill are at present under construction. In August 1953, work was begun, with assistance from the USSR, on the reconstruction of Anshan's No. 1 steel mill, for completion in 1954. This plant is expected to provide all the steel requirements of the three mills mentioned above.[1]

Assisted by Soviet Union technicians, all major blast furnaces are now capable of producing top quality basic pig iron for steel making, using low-grade iron ore. In Anshan, basic pig iron accounted for 90 per cent of the pig iron output in 1952, as compared with only 25 per cent in 1952.[2]

Machinery: Comprehensive statistics relating to the output of machinery and engineering equipment are not available but there are indications of solid progress during the past few years. A large number of engineering works in the North-east (Anshan, Harbin, Fushun, Mukden, etc.), the North (Taiyuan), the East (Shanghai) and the Central South (Hsiangtan) are being erected, enlarged and re-equipped. In 1953, the responsibilities of the Ministry of First Machine Industry included the construction and reconstruction of 10 large plants of which four are to be newly built while six are to be reconstructed and expanded. The plants to be erected are a factory for heavy engineering equipment, a motor car factory (the first one in China), a factory for precision instruments and cutting tools and a factory for electrical equipment including turbine generators, etc. The first of these four, the heavy machine making factory under erection in Taiyuan, Shansi province, is the largest of the engineering plants under construction, and when completed in 1955, it will be the first plant in China to produce large steel-rolling equipment and other heavy engineering products.[3]

Cotton textiles: Cotton yarn production, which in 1949 fell to 72 per cent of the pre-1949 peak of 2.3 million bales,[4] is reported to have regained the peak in 1950 and exceeded it by 8 per cent in 1951 and by 41 per cent in 1952. An even greater increase has been reported for the production of cotton cloth, which is claimed to have exceeded the pre-1949 peak of 940 million metres by 9 per cent in 1950, by 15 per cent in 1951 and by 67 per cent in 1952. On the other hand, textile capacity has risen but little: the number of spindles and looms increased respectively by 15 per cent and 21 per cent up to the end 1952.[5] The far greater rise in output would seem to imply that even at the pre-1949 peak of production, capacity was heavily underutilized.

Owing to the lack of investment opportunities (the hoarding of gold and precious metal and investment in land are prohibited), cotton textiles had to be relied upon to provide the incentive to increase agricultural production and to market surplus farm products. No efforts have been spared therefore to increase the output of textiles and their distribution in rural areas.

FOREIGN TRADE

The foreign trade of mainland China is reported to have recovered significantly in 1950 from the 1949 low. According to published statistics of China's trading partners, there was little change in the value of trade with the countries other than the USSR and Eastern Europe during 1950-51, while the percentage share of such trade declined from 74 per cent in 1950 to 39 per cent in 1951, bearing witness to the dramatic reorientation of mainland China's trade. On the basis of these figures, it may be inferred that mainland China's total trade nearly doubled between 1950 and 1951 (see table 5).

The trade in 1952 is claimed to have increased over 1951, especially that with the USSR and Eastern Europe.[6]

1. NCNA, Anshan, 17 August 1953.
2. NCNA, Peking, 21 March 1953.
3. NCNA, Taiyuan, 24 May 1953.
4. Bales of 400 lb each as reported for 1931 by the China Textile Industries, Inc., Shanghai.
5. NCNA, Peking, 30 September 1953.
6. Wu Lun-hsi, *op. cit.*

The proportion of mainland China's trade with the USSR and eastern Europe is claimed to have increased from 26 per cent in 1950 to 61 per cent in 1951 and to 70 per cent (estimated) in 1952.[1] The decline of trade with the rest of the world reflects the full impact of the United Nations embargo on the export of strategic goods to mainland China. Despite some export restrictions imposed from the Chinese side also, the embargo resulted in increasing China's export surplus, thus reversing the traditional excess of imports financed by emigrant's remittances and capital imports.[2]

While mainland China has entered into barter agreements with the USSR and other "people's democracies" including Poland, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Bulgaria, Rumania, Hungary, Outer Mongolia and North Korea, the Chinese delegation to the Moscow International Economic Conference in April 1952 signed barter agreements with the industrial and commercial representatives from 11 countries of Western Europe and Asia (including the United Kingdom, France, West Germany, Holland, Belgium, Italy, Finland, Switzerland, Ceylon, Indonesia and Pakistan), involving a total trade valued at $224 million. However, it is only recently that a significant increase has taken place in the volume of trade with the United Kingdom[3] and France.[4] An earlier agreement with Japan, involving trade to the value of £60 million, had to be extended first up to 30 June 1953, and again up to 31 December, 1953.[5] In the meantime, agreements have also been signed with India, Pakistan and Ceylon for the export of food grains to India and Ceylon and of coal to Pakistan in exchange for the imports of rubber from Ceylon, raw cotton from Pakistan and jute products from India.

Substantial changes in commodity composition have accompanied the reorientation of Chinese trade. As shown in table 6, between 1936-37 and 1950, many consumer goods (especially textiles) and food items have almost disappeared from mainland China's import list, to be replaced by raw materials (especially raw cotton and crude rubber), mineral oils, chemicals (especially pharmaceuticals) and industrial equipment. There has been a notable increase in the relative shares of food items in the total value of exports. For rice mainland China has actually shifted from a net import to a net export basis. Thus in 1951 China exported to India more than 66,000 tons of rice. In 1952 rice continued to be exported to India and was for the first time exported to Ceylon in exchange for rubber.

The control of foreign trade offers little difficulty since the supply of major import and export commoditities is almost completely in the hands of the State trading companies. In principle all foreign trade is to be conducted on the basis of barter. Trade with the USSR and Eastern European countries is conducted by trade agreements. For trade with other countries, imports are linked to exports and are to precede export

1. Yeh Chi-chung, *op. cit.*
2. However, imports into mainland China from the rest of the world are not in all cases recorded and may have to that extent been under-estimated.
3. The trade agreement signed between the British Trade delegation and the China National Import & Export Corporation on 6 July 1953 in Peking provides for trade of £30 million for each direction. NCNA, Peking, 6 July 1953.
4. The trade agreement signed between the French Trade delegration and the China National Import & Export Corporation in Peking on 5 June 1953 provides for trade of £10 million for each direction. NCNA, Peking, 17 June 1953.
5. NCNA, Peking, 30 June 1953.

TABLES 5

MAINLAND CHINA'S TRADE WIIH COUNTRIES OTHER THAN THE USSR AND EASTERN EUROPE, 1950-52

	Trade with countries other than the USSR and Eastern Europe (million dollars)			(3) as per cent of total trade of mainland China[a]	Estimated total trade of mainland China[b]
	Exports	Imports	Total	(%)	(million dollars)
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1950 Full year	476	409	885	74	1,200
1951 Full year	473	440	913	39	2,300
1951 First half	250	314	564	—	—
1952 First half	151	52	203	—	—

Source: *World Economic Report, 1951-52*, p.130.

a. 1950 and 1951 figures: Yeh Chi-chung, "Three Years of China's Foreign Trade", in *New China's Economic Achievements 1949-52*, p. 240.

b. Derived from (3) and (4).

TABLE 6
MAINLAND CHINA:[a] DISTRIBUTION OF THE VALUE OF EXPORTS AND IMPORTS
(In percentages[b])

	1936	1937	1950[b]
EXPORTS			
Food	**11.7**	**10.6**	**16.3**
Casings	1.0	0.9	1.2
Eggs and egg products	3.8	4.0	4.7
Grains, coarse	3.1	2.2	2.3
Hogs, living	**0.4**	0.4	2.3
Rice and paddy	—	—	1.2
Tea, green and black	2.6	2.2	3.3
Vegetables	0.8	0.9	1.3
Raw materials	**40.9**	**43.6**	**42.4**
Bean cake	4.0	4.0	1.6
Cotton, waste	0.6	0.5	1.0
Feathers	0.5	0.7	1.0
Hides and skins	4.0	4.4	2.0
Hog bristles	2.5	2.5	6.7
Peanuts, shelled	1.7	1.6	4.7
Raw silk, white	2.7	3.0	2.0
Soybeans	16.7	15.9	14.4
Wool, goat's	0.5	0.4	1.1
Wool, sheep's	1.4	1.6	4.1
Coal	3.2	3.0	1.2
Tin	2.3	3.0	1.2
Tungsten ore	0.8	3.0	1.4
Animals and vegetable oils and fats	**11.8**	**13.7**	**13.9**
Tung oil	6.4	6.7	7.0
Fats and oils excluding tung oil	3.7	5.3	5.4
Iron, steel and products including ore	**1.7**	**1.7**	**1.5**
Others	**35.6**	**32.1**	**27.4**
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
IMPORTS			
Food, drinks and tobacco	**12.7**	**11.8**	**3.0**
Animal products, canned food, groceries	1.1	1.2	..
Fishery and sea products	1.9	1.9	..
Fruits, seeds and vegetables	1.0	0.9	..
Rice and paddy	2.3	2.6	1.0
Sugar	3.2	2.5	2.0
Tobacco	1.4	1.6	..
Wheat flour	1.8	1.1	..
Raw materials	**6.4**	**5.0**	**29.5**
Cotton, raw	3.3	2.5	18.0
Rubber, crude	0.6	0.5	11.5
Timber	2.5	2.0	..
Mineral oils	**5.9**	**6.5**	**8.4**
Gasoline, diesel oil and kerosene	5.3	5.9	6.2
Lubricating oils	0.6	0.6	2.2
Chemicals	**5.3**	**5.6**	**10.3**
Ammonium sulphate	0.9	1.1	2.0
Aniline dyes	1.1	1.0	2.0
Pharmaceuticals	1.1	1.1	4.0
Other chemicals	2.2	2.4	2.3
Machinery and metals	**25.2**	**27.0**	**26.1**
Machinery	5.6	6.5	8.3
Vehicles and vessels	5.9	4.9	3.2
Electric cables and wires	0.8	1.1	1.5
Copper	0.5	0.8	1.8
Iron and steel	8.3	10.2	11.3
Miscellaneous metal manufactures	4.1	3.5	..
Other manufactures	**20.8**	**21.7**	**5.5**
Piece goods, cotton, wool, silk and manufactures thereof	14.4	14.5	..
Books, paper, wood pulp excluding printing paper	4.0	4.1	..
Paper, printing	1.4	1.7	1.3
Auto tyres and tubes	0.3	0.5	1.2
Gunny bags, new	0.7	0.9	3.0
Others	**23.7**	**22.4**	**17.2**
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: For 1936 and 1937: *The Foreign Trade of China 1937*, the Maritime Customs, China; *Annual Returns of the Foreign Trade of Manchoukuo 1937*, the Department of Finance and Commerce; for 1950 the customs returns of the People's Republic of China as published in *Hsin Hua Monthly*, April 1951.

a. For 1936 and 1937, the trade between (*a*) China and Manchuria and (*b*) China and Kwantung leased territory is excluded.

b. The customs returns of the Central People's Government for 1950 as published in *Hsin Hua Monthly*, April 1951 give the value of imports and exports only in percentages for those items accounting for more than 1 per cent of the total value of imports or exports. Corresponding percentages are given for 1936 and 1937 imports, in addition to those which in these years accounted for 1 per cent or more of the total value of imports or exports.

shipments. All commodities are classified into different categories in order of their economic and strategic importance. Imports of articles belonging to one category may be bartered with exports of the same or lower category but not of a higher category.

PRICE MOVEMENT AND PRICE POLICY

Price movement

At the time of the establishment of the Central People's Government in Peking in October 1949, China was going through a period of hyper-inflation. From August 1948 when *fapi* was replaced by the gold yuan notes, to May 1949, one month after the fall of Nanking into the hands of the People's Liberation Army, most commodity prices increased over a million times. The tempo of price rise was reduced after May, yet from June to December 1949 the price index of 13 essential commodities in the six principal cities still showed an increase of roughly 107 times. By the end of March 1950, however, this run-away inflation had been brought under control with the result that the price level from April to December 1950 was below that of March and that for the year as a whole the price rise over 1949 was no more than 78 per cent.[1]

For the four large cities of Shanghai, Tientsin, Peking, and Wuhan, the average weighted index of retail prices, with 1950 as 100, rose to 102 during the first half and to 107 during the second half of 1951. In 1952, it stayed at 108 during the first half year, and at 107 during the second.[2] Wholesale prices actually declined during 1952. According to the statistics of government trade agencies, the general wholesale price index of 52 principal commodities in seven big cities (Shanghai, Tientsin, Mukden, Hankow, Chungking, Sian and Canton) was 6.4 per cent lower in December 1952 than in the corresponding month of 1951. Among these, food items other than cereals declined by about 15 per cent in price, fuel, industrial equipment and materials by about 13 per cent, cotton yarn and cloth by about 1 per cent, and building materials by 9 per cent. In contrast, market price of grain increased in 1952 by about 2 per cent.

The control of inflation

The inflation of the years up to 1950 was brought under control, owing partly to the restoration of peace and order and partly to the enforcement of strong monetary and fiscal measures. The restoration of the transport system, the recovery of production and the establishment of an efficient administration all contributed to stabilization.

In order to check the speculative flight into commodities on the part of holders of liquid assets, various steps were taken during 1949 and 1950 to make the holding of bank balances, savings accounts or bonds more attractive. At the same time new regulations were issued to the controllers of government funds, who in the period of hyper-inflation appeared to have participated in the general flight from money into commodities. The efforts to curb inflation reflect an interesting mixture of persuasion and compulsion. At the beginning, the main emphasis appears to have been placed on persuasion. Thus to restore confidence in the currency and foster saving, deposits were accepted at the People's Bank of China as early as April 1949 in terms of commodity units, which provided a guarantee against depreciation.[3] The various savings plans based on these commodity units appear, however, to have played only a limited role in restoring monetary stability.

A more effective attempt to reduce the purchasing power in the hands of the public was made through the issue of 'Victory Bonds' (also expressed in commodity units)[4] which were to cover 12.5 per cent of the 1950 government expenditure, according to the budget for that year. While this issue, backed with official pressure, was successful enough to cause in some cases inventory liquidation, it provided in fact less than 5 per cent of government revenue.[5]

In 1950 also a tighter control was instituted over the finances of state organs: all their deposits were concentrated in the People's Bank and their cash in hand was reduced to three days' requirements. Further measures tightened control over capital expenditure and inter-agency indebtedness.

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1. Index of wholesale prices prepared by the Statistics Section, People's Bank of China.
2. *World Economic Report, 1951-52*, p. 53.
3. In Shanghai, each commodity unit consists of ¾ kg. of medium grade rice, 1/3 metre of cotton fabrics, 1/32 kg. of peanut oil and ½ kg. of coal briquettes. In Peking, each commodity unit consists of ½ kg. of corn flour, ½ kg. of wheat flour, and 1/3 metre of fine broad-cloth.
4. The commodity unit was the *fen*, each *fen* being equivalent to the aggregate weighted average value of 3 kg. of rice (or millet in Tientsin), ⅔ kg. of wheat flour, 1⅓ metre of cotton cloth and 8 kg. of coal in six principal cities. The weights are 45 for Shanghai, 20 for Tientsin, 10 for Hankow, Canton and Chungking, respectively, and 5 for Sian. The monetary equivalent of *fen* varied between PBY19,000 and PBY31,600. The sale 140 million *fen* absorbed about PBY3,000,000 million.
5. Although the victory bonds provided less than 5 per cent of the government revenue in 1950, the effect in helping to arrest the inflation was larger. The bond issue was announced in December 1949 and floated from January 1950 onward. The rate of price increase was reduced immediately, and stopped in April 1950. The initial effect of bond issue was to change the psychology or expectation of the people, thus bringing about price stabilization.

At the end of 1950, the Korean war led to fears of a renewal of inflationary pressures. The threat was met partly by a drive for arms donation, partly by drastic measures limiting the cash balance which could be legally held by individuals and private enterprises to PBY 2 million (equivalent to $88 at the official rate of exchange).

It appears likely however that the close and growing administrative control over the economy may have contributed more than any of the measures listed above to the maintenance of monetary stability.

Fiscal policy

Fiscal policy may have contributed even more than monetary policy to warding off the threat of renewed inflation in 1951. While military expenditure rose by more than PBY 20,000,000 million, tax revenue increased even more; as a result of more efficient collection, taxes levied rose far more than money incomes (see table 7).[1] A rapid rise in receipts from government enterprises and an increase in miscellaneous receipts helped to create in 1951 a large budgetary surplus and to mop up excess purchasing power.

The slowing down of operations in Korea permitted a decrease in military expenditure which together with a doubling of the allocation to economic construction, is a main feature of the expenditure in the 1952 budget; on the revenue side, the most impressive feature is the increase in collection under 'other items' which may be partly accounted for by the large sums obtained as fines in the course of the "five-antis" movement.

While the year 1950 had ended with a small budget surplus (revenue exceeding expenditure by 2 per cent), the accounts for 1951 and 1952 showed a surplus of about 19 and 16 per cent respectively. The 1953 budget estimates appear to be balanced.

1. The budgetary figure, presented in table 7, call for a word of explanation. The information given tends to paint a rather favourable picture of the fiscal developments during the period covered. The figures tend to stress the importance of receipts from and payments to State enterprises for economic and social development as well as urban versus rural taxes, and to minimize the magnitude of items such as military expenditure. Thus it is stated in the 1950 draft budget (presented by the Minister of Finance on 2 December 1949 to the 4th meeting of the Government Administration Council of the Central People's Government) that "items such as expenditure by local government to support the front (under administrative expenditure), initial expenses incurred by Military Control Commissions in newly liberated cities, transportation costs (under finance) etc. are in reality war expenses". In the meantime, receipts on state enterprises for economic and social development include profits and taxes on the one hand, and depreciation fund and reserve fund on the other (see Ma Yin-chu, (member of the Central Committee on Financial and Economic Affairs), "The Superiority and Special Characteristics of China's 1952 Budget", in *Wen Hui Pao*, Hong Kong, 22 August 1952; *Report on the 1953 State Budget*, by the Minister of Finance).

THE FIVE-YEAR PLAN

The year 1953 witnessed the adoption of the first Five-Year Plan for Economic Development. The plan was first mentioned by Chen Yun, Chairman of the Central Financial and Economic Committee, at a meeting in November 1952.[2] A month later, Premier Chou En-lai announced that China's economic rehabilitation had been completed and that the country was now to enter a period of large-scale planned construction.[3]

2. *Shanghai News*, 20 November 1952.
3. *Ibid*, 30 December 1952.

TABLE 7
GOVERNMENT REVENUE AND EXPENDITURES, 1950-53
(PBY 1,000 million)

	1950	%	1951	%	1952	%	1953	%
Taxes	48,978	70.6	81,128	57.1	96,218	50.9	114,685	49.1
Receipts from State enterprises	8,695	12.5	30,537	21.5	46,579	24.6	69,985	30.0
Credit loans and insurance	3,276	4.7	5,679	4.0	2,510	1.3	10,280	4.4
Other items	8,485	12.2	24,739	17.4	43,971	23.2	38,549	16.5
Total revenue	69,434	100.0	142,083	100.0	189,278	100.0	233,499	100.0
National economic construction	17,356	25.5	35,109	29.5	73,070	44.8	103,527	44.3
Social, cultural and educational projects	7,552	11.1	13,437	11.3	22,333	13.7	34,807	14.9
National defence	28,273	41.5	50,605	42.5	42,777	26.2	52,254	22.4
State administration	13,132	19.3	17,455	14.7	19,337	11.8	23,780	10.2
Others	1,767	2.6	2,413	2.0	5,702	3.5	19,131	8.2
Total expenditure	68,080	100.0	119,019	100.0	163,219	100.0	233,499	100.0
Budget surplus (+) or deficit (—)	+1,354		+23,019		+26,059		—	
% of above in total expenditure	2.0		19.3		16.0		—	

Source: *Finance Minister's Report on the 1951 State Budget.* 1950-52 figures represent probably actuals while 1953 figures are budget estimates.

Thus far, no five-year plan *per se* has been published by the government. In the report on the 1953 State budget, delivered on 12 February 1953, the Minister of Finance announced a series of targets for 1953, the first year of the plan. Revised targets were announced first on 8 May by the Vice-Chairman of the Central Committee on Financial and Economic Affairs and again on 1 October by the Director of the New China News Agency. The original and revised targets are given in table 8.

As shown above, there has been an over-all reduction in the planned rate of increase for 1953 as compared with 1952: from 25.6 per cent to 23 per cent in total value of industrial production and from 9 per cent to 6 per cent for food crops. The downward revision of 1953 targets is most marked in the case of copper, lead, zinc, and machine tools for industrial production and in the case of tobacco for agricultural production. The 1957 production objectives for major industries, as set by the Central People's Government, are reported to be as follows:[1]

1. Steel production will be 4 times, and rolled steel production 2½ times as great as in 1952. Two large metallurgical plants will be built, one in Tayeh, an iron mining centre 50 miles southeast of Hankow, and the other in Paotow in North China near the border of Outer Mongolia.

1. "Pravda on Sino-Soviet economic relations", in NCNA, Peking, 2 October 1953; "China begins her five-year plan", in China News Service, 7 October 1953.

TABLE 8

INDUSTRIAL AND AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION—1953 TARGETS

(1952=100)

	Po (12 February)	Chia (8 May)	Wu (25 September)
1. General			
Industrial and agricultural production	—	—	112
Industrial production	125.6	123	123
State owned sector			
Output	—	132	132
Labor productivity	—	116	—
Cost of production	—	95.6	—
Agricultural production	—	—	106
2. Industrial production			
Coal	—	—	97.8
Petroleum, crude	142	129.1	142
Electricity	127	118.3	127
Pig iron	114	113.3	114
Steel ingots and castings	123	122.1	123
Structural steel	—	134.8	134.3
Copper	139	128.6	128.6
Lead	149	134.6	—
Zinc	154	132	—
Machine tools	134	—	—
Metal cutting machines	—	104.6	104.6
Machinery, industrial and mining	153	—	—
Generators	—	190.9	190.9
Motors	—	141.2	141.2
Nitric acid	—	134.3	134.3
Ammoniam sulphate	—	132	—
Cement	—	129.7	129.7
Cotton yarn	109	109.4	109
Cotton cloth	116	110.5	116
Paper	106	107.9	106
Sugar	123	—	123
Timber	—	138	138
3. Agricultural production			
Food grains	109	—	106
Raw cotton	116	—	116
Tobacco	147	—	102.8
Tea	116	—	—

Sources: Po I-po (Minister of Finance,) *Report on the 1953 State Budget*, in *Ta Kung Pao*, Hong Kong, 18 February 1953; Chia, To-fu (Vice Chairman of Central Committee on Financial and Economic Affairs,) *Report to the 7th session of All China Trade Union Congress*, 8 May 1953, in NCNA, Peking, 25 September, 1953 or *Ta Kung Pao*, Hong Kong, 9 May 1953; Wu, Lun-hsi, "New China on the Road to Industrialization," in *Ta Kung Pao*, Hong Kong 1, October 1953.

2. Coal production will increase by 60 per cent over 1952 through the building of new mines and new fuel processing plants.

3. Power output will be doubled through (*a*) expansion of the hydro-electric power plant at Hsiao Fengman on the Sungari river and of the steam electric plants at Fushun, Harbin, Fuhsin and Dairen in the Northeast, and (*b*) construction of new steam power plants at Taiyuan, Sian, Lanchow, Tayeh and Paotow.

4. Non-ferrous metals. The most important projects seem to be (1) expansion of the existing aluminium production at Fushun in the Northeast, and (2) reconstruction of a tin combine at Kochinu, Yunan province.

5. Others include (*a*) construction of a new large oil refinery in Kansu province, (*b*) building of the first synthetic rubber plant, and (*c*) building of several new fertilizer and pharmaceutical plants.

The 1953 budget provides for the expenditure of PBY 104,000 billion connected with economic development, a considerable increase as compared with PBY 73,000 billion for 1952, PBY 35,000 billion for 1951 and PBY 17,000 billion for 1950.

While the production of coal, steel and of capital goods, with the exception of coal which is still lagging behind, has reached and even exceeded the pre-1949 peaks, the output of these key products can only meet a small fraction of China's growing needs. The First Five-Year Plan no doubt represents a blue print for the strengthening of heavy industries as a basis for further industrial expansion. Owing to the present very frail foundation of the structure of China's industry (the annual output of steel is estimated at less than 2 million tons), the fulfilment of the Five-Year Plan will require the importation on a large and growing scale of key materials and equipment. The success of the Plan appears to be, therefore, intimately linked with the government's success in placing contracts with and obtaining deliveries from the USSR. It is reported that the negotiations for economic and technical assistance, which were in progress since the latter part of 1952, have been recently concluded. According to the new agreement the Soviet Union will help mainland China to build or re-build up to the end of 1959 and including the enterprises it helped to build in the past three years, a total of 141 enterprises including the iron and steel enterprises, the non-ferrous metal enterprises, the coal and petroleum enterprises, machine building factories, automobile and tractor works, hydraulic and thermal power stations. Of these 141 enterprises, 91 are new enterprises and 50 existing ones.[1]

1. "Our Thanks to the Soviet Union for her Great Help", NCNA, Peking, 16 September 1953.

ASIAN ECONOMIC STATISTICS

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SYMBOLS EMPLOYED

The following symbols have been used throughout:

*=average of six to eleven months.
¶=average of end-of-quarter figures.
‡=12 months beginning April of the year stated.
†=12 months ending September of the year stated.
ø=12 months ending June of the year stated.
I, II, III, and IV for quarters of years.
§ =end of period.
Mn=million.
.. =not available
— =nil or negligible.
Figures in italics are provisional

The following symbols are used to represent the abbreviations of national currencies in Asia and the Far East:

H. =Hwan (Republic of Korea, one Hwan is equivalent to 100 Won)
HK$=Hong Kong dollar
K. =Kyat (Burma)
M$ =Malayan dollar (Federation of Malaya, Singapore, North Borneo, Brunei and Sarawak)
NT$=New Taiwan dollar
P. =Peso (the Philippines)
Pr. =Piastre (Cambodia, Laos and Viet-Nam)
Rp. =Rupiah (Indonesia)
Rs. =Rupees (Ceylon, India and Pakistan)
Y. =Yen (Japan)

The term Indochina is used in a geographic sense to cover the Customs Union of Cambodia, Laos and Viet-Nam.

The term Malaya includes the Federation of Malaya and Singapore.

SOURCES

To ensure comparability, data compiled or published by the United Nations Statistical Office have been incorporated wherever possible; material supplied by governments, publications of governments, of the United Nations and its specialized agencies and of interational commodity study groups have been used as additional sources.

PRODUCTION

1. INDEX NUMBERS OF PRODUCTION

1948 = 100

	Weight	1949	1950	1951	1952	1952			1953				
						II	III	IV	I	II	Apr	May	Jun
CHINA (Taiwan) (1951=100)[a]													
Industrial production	100.00	108	110	100	124	..	..	..	133	144	145	145	142
Public utilities	8.69	..	..	100	105	..	..	..	108	109	108	110	108
Electricity	..	66	81	100	110	..	..	..	118	118	117	119	118
Mining and Quarrying	3.79	..	..	100	128	..	..	..	126	108	115	114	97
Coal	..	174	108	100	138	..	..	..	145	152	159	158	139
Manufacturing	87.52	..	..	100	126	..	..	..	137	151	152	152	149
Food	..	144	147	100	120	..	..	..	70	129	142	130	113
Textiles	..	48	64	100	167	..	..	..	208	224	240	219	213
Chemicals	..	60	70	100	109	..	..	..	97	107	97	112	111
INDIA[b]													
Manufacturing and mining	100.00	98	97	108	119	117	118	123	122	124	130	121	122
Mining (coal)	11.95	106	107	115	122	124	114	121	126	126	132	126	119
Chemicals and allied trades	4.92	114	129	145	204	176	210	257	258	233	240	237	223
Metal manufactures (other than machinery)	9.30	108	114	119	121	120	116	122	120	101	98	98	106
Engineering & electrical goods	5.58	121	146	188	170	152	166	164	165	188	189	181	194
Textiles	61.40	90	82	90	100	98	103	102	101	104	104	102	105
Cotton textiles	43.49	91	84	93	104	102	110	110	109	112	112	111	114
Jute	16.53	85	77	80	87	88	83	83	80	81	83	78	81
Paper	1.46	105	111	135	140	135	144	143	139	136	145	132	132
Manufacture of non-metallic mining products (other than coal and petroleum)	1.70	107	149	171	173	150	143	203	247	205	253	182	180
Manufactures of wood (plywood)	0.15	89	93	132	168	182	151	149	139	111	113	116	105
Food (sugar)	3.54[c]	93	91	104	139	593	370	111	112	333	396	486	117
JAPAN													
Industrial production	100.00	129	152	200	213	213	218	220	219	251	244	250	257
Public utilities	10.78	113	122	133	144	146	143	146	146	157	154	159	157
Manufacturing and mining	89.22	134	160	218	233	232	240	241	240	277	270	276	286
Mining	6.80	116	122	139	144	153	152	112	167	156	163	156	148
Manufactures	82.42	136	165	228	243	241	251	256	249	292	283	291	302
Non-durable	42.36	135	193	254	290	281	303	314	308	348	338	347	360
Textiles	18.71	130	193	266	307	294	319	317	311	350	344	337	368
Chemicals	14.60	138	204	256	280	276	290	299	294	342	326	339	361
Durable	40.06	136	151	216	221	222	227	228	221	265	257	264	275
Metals	14.70	189	270	364	398	412	401	387	382	444	431	447	453
Machinery and transport equipment	19.81	122	116	172	169	166	177	181	174	217	209	212	228
Machinery	6.84	131	107	166	151	140	151	164	157	*182*	191	180	*176*
Electric machinery	4.93	110	103	132	106	99	110	115	120	*136*	130	141	*138*
Transport equipment	7.04	97	126	200	212	226	232	211	204	*232*	254	260	*282*
Precision instruments	1.01	201	157	209	268	242	278	326	285	*346*	346	342	*351*
Classification by economic use													
Basic materials	42.98	146	196	251	273	278	280	266	278	309	301	310	316
Investment goods	25.17	125	125	179	182	178	188	195	186	228	220	225	238
Consumers' goods	21.07	126	173	236	282	271	294	309	302	342	341	338	348
PHILIPPINES (First quarter 1952=100)													
Manufactures					100	105	110	*105*	..	..	..	..	..
Non-durable manufactures					100	102	106	*103*	..	..	..	..	..
Tobacco products					100	93	91	*95*	..	..	..	..	..
Textiles					100	165	155	*140*	..	..	..	..	..
Footwear and wearing apparel					100	99	115	*105*	..	..	..	..	..
Chemicals					100	109	119	*109*	..	..	..	..	..
Durable manufactures					100	109	115	*108*	..	..	..	..	..
Stone, clay and glass products (including cement)					100	103	92	*93*	..	..	..	..	..
Metal products					100	106	127	*111*	..	..	..	..	..
Electrical appliances					100	129	143	*124*	..	..	..	..	..

a. From 1951 onward figures relate to a recently constructed index covering output of 112 commodities (The weights shown relate to this index). The index is compiled using Laspeyres' formula, based on 1951 prices. Figures for 1949 and 1950 relate to the old official index (original base 1948=100) covering output of 58 commodities by public enterprises only. Sugar production is excluded from the monthly index but included in the annual index.

b Group indices Compiled by the ECAFE Secretariate on basis of the Interim Index (base 1946=100) of Production published by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, Calcutta.

The following series have been used for the compilation of the index for individual industries:

I. Mining: coal.
II. Chemicals and allied trades: (1) Paints and varnishes, (2) Matches, and (3) Chemicals.
III. Metal manufacturers (other than machinery): (1) Non-ferrous metals and (2) Steel.
IV. Engineering and electrical goods: (1) Bicycles, (2) Sewing machines, (3) Electric lamps, (4) Electric fans, (5) General engineering and electrical engineering, and (6) Electric motors.
V. Textiles: (1) Cotton textiles, (2) Woolen manufactures, and (3) Jute.
VI. Paper: Paper and paper board.
VII. Manufacture of non-metallic mining products (other than coal and petroleum): (1) Cement, (2) Glass and (3) Refractories.
VIII. Manufacture of wood: plywood.
IX. Food: sugar.

c. Annual weight. The monthly weights are seasonally adjusted.

XUM

2. PRODUCTION OF SELECTED COMMODITIES

Monthly averages or calendar months

Thousand metric tons

	1938[c]	1948	1950	1951	1952	1952			1953				
						II	III	IV	I	II	Apr	May	Jun
COAL													
China (Taiwan)	183	136	117	138	190	196	204	210	200	210	220	219	192
India	2,400	2,551	2,735	2,905	3,067	3,119	2,864	3,077	3,132	3,167	3,296	3,247	2,958
Indonesia	121	45	67	72	80	80	86	77	78	71	74	68	71
Japan	3,484	2,810	3,205	3,610	3,613	3,939	3,772	2,436	4,436	4,026	4,272	4,002	3,804
Korea (South)	19	67	47	9	48	40	49	68	62	74	72	75	75
Malaya	40	32	35	32	27	28	31	24	26	27	30	26	26
Pakistan[a]	..	20	37	43	50	41	40	55	63	48	58	48	38
Viet-Nam	195	30	42	52	70	68	57	86	61	65	72	67	56
ELECTRICITY (Mn kwh)													
Cambodia	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	..	..	..	..	..
Ceylon	3	5	7	9	10	9	9	11	..	..	..	..	..
China (Taiwan)	..	70	87	107	115	113	119	125	126	126	125	127	126
Hong Kong	..	13	24	29	33	32	34	33	33	36	34	35	38
India	211[q]	381	425	489	516	501	532	543	524	541	531	555	543
Japan	2,004	2,644	3,236	3,426	3,668	3,758	3,724	3,717	3,447	3,740	3,687	3,954	3,579
Korea (South)	..	41	34	26	53	49	55	62	56	62	64	63	60
Malaya	..	..	56	66	80	80	80	82	86	..	86	88	..
Pakistan	..	11	15	19	25	23	25	31	29	..	29	37	..
Philippines (Manila)	12	30	38	41	46	44	48	50	49	51	49	52	51
Thailand[b] (Bangkok)	3‡	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	6	7	6	7	7
Viet-Nam	8	8	14	16	19	19	19	20	23	24	24	23	24
PETROLEUM, CRUDE													
Brunei	59	224	343	415	423	421	427	416	402	..	..	..	..
Indonesia	616	361	534	620	710	693	724	790	790	854	831	866	864
Japan	30	14	25	28	26	26	26	26	25	24	19	26	25
Pakistan	..	5	12	13	15	15	15	16	16	16	16	16	15
Sarawak	17	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	..	..	..	..
IRON ORE													
Hong Kong	—	—	14	14	11	9	7	12	14	10	9	5	15
India	232	193	250	310	..	..	..	..	333	309	325	331	271
Japan	52	47	69	76	86	76	103	90	81	78	77	79	79
Malaya	137	—	42	72	89	98	128	91	57	119	113	154	89
Philippines	77	1	50	74	97	117	96	87	95	108	104	118	104
TIN IN CONCENTRATES (metric tons)													
Burma	419	97	129	138	*80*	*96*	*80*	*80*	*80*	*80*	*80*	*80*	*80*
China	906	406	*300*	*400*	*450*	*450*	*450*	*450*	*525*	*525*	*525*	*525*	*525*
Indonesia	2,517	2,588	2,718	2,623	2,964	2,953	3,310	3,163	2,380	2,903	2,675	3,097	2,936
Japan	..	10	28	37	54	52	57	63	59	..	59	66	..
Laos & Viet-Nam	135	3	5	*8*	*8*	*8*	*8*	*8*	*8*	*8*	*8*	*8*	*8*
Malaya	3,673	3,795	4,872	4,840	4,812	4,842	4,773	4,926	4,758	4,567	4,649	4,721	4,330
Thailand	1,255	359	878	805	802	731	792	931	900	853	798	892	869
TIN METAL (metric tons)													
Malaya	5,456	4,209	5,821	5,581	5,320	4,913	5,824	5,240	5,836	4,706	5,154	4,737	4,228
NATURAL RUBBER[c]													
British Borneo[d]	2.4	5.2	7.0	5.6	4.5	4.8	3.9	4.5	4.4	3.8	3.4	4.8	3.2
Burma	*0.8*	*1.0*	*0.8*	*0.8*	*0.9*	*1.4*	*0.2*	*0.7*	*1.6*	*1.1*	*0.5*	—	*2.8*
Cambodia	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.3	1.7	2.2	1.2	1.7	1.4	1.7	1.9
Ceylon	4.3	8.0	9.6	8.9	8.2	6.4	8.5	10.3	7.1	7.5	7.1	7.6	7.6
India	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.6	1.8	2.3	1.2	1.8	2.1	1.9	1.4
Indonesia	27.0	36.6	59.0	68.2	63.1	57.7	60.2	69.3	56.5	58.7	55.0	61.9	59.1
Malaya	30.4	59.1	58.8	51.3	49.4	46.8	50.5	52.8	48.0	45.1	43.8	46.4	45.1
Thailand[e]	3.5	8.1	9.5	9.2	8.3	7.3	8.6	8.2	10.0	6.4	7.5	6.0	5.8
Viet-Nam	3.6	2.3	2.7	3.1	3.4	3.3	4.1	4.8	2.8	3.4	2.6	3.7	4.0
COTTON YARN													
China (Taiwan)	..	—	0.3	0.6	1.1	1.0	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.6
Hong Kong	..	..	2.0	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.6	2.5	2.6	2.6
India	49.3	55.0	43.7	49.0	54.7	52.3	57.8	58.0	54.8	56.1	55.3	56.2	56.7
Japan	54.5	10.4	19.9	28.1	29.4	27.0	29.3	30.6	28.3	32.1	30.5	29.2	36.5
Korea (South)	..	0.5	0.8	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.4
COTTON FABRICS (Mn metres)													
Ceylon (Mn sq. metres)	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.7
China (Taiwan)	..	1.0	3.0	4.3	6.8	7.1	7.0	7.5	10.9	10.0	12.0	9.0	9.0
India	325	337	275	319	351	346	374	370	364	384	383	387	382
Japan (Mn sq. metres)	243.6	64.4	107.4	151.8	156.0	152.2	156.0	153.2	167.0	203.0	199.8	201.4	206.7
Korea (South)	..	2.1	4.1	2.5	5.0	3.5	5.1	8.8	*6.1*	..	..	..	..
Pakistan	..	6.7	8.1	9.7	13.3	13.2	13.9	14.7	12.4	..	16.5	18.1	..
Philippines	..	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.3
CEMENT													
China (Taiwan)	..	19.6	27.7	32.4	37.1	40.0	40.1	40.8	41.9	43.4	45.0	38.9	46.4
Hong Kong	..	4.4	5.7	6.0	5.8	6.1	5.3	4.6	4.8	4.7	3.1	4.8	6.1
India	119.0	131.0	221.0	271.0	300.0	290.0	318.0	311.0	290.0	314.0	289.0	329.0	324.0
Japan	473.6	154.9	371.9	545.6	593.1	590.8	593.1	640.2	551.6	768.9	751.3	794.9	760.5
Korea (South)	..	1.9	0.8	0.5	1.9	2.4	1.4	3.8	1.0	6.9	6.2	6.2	8.2
Pakistan	..	20.7	35.1	42.3	45.3	50.1	40.0	48.1	51.5	51.0	49.0	55.7	48.4
Philippines[e]	13.9	10.0	24.9	24.9	25.9	27.2	25.2	23.7	25.0	24.4	22.4	25.3	25.4
Thailand	9.7‡	6.9	13.8	19.0	20.6	20.6	19.7	20.8	22.9	22.1	22.7	21.3	22.3
Viet-Nam	22.2	8.1	12.0	17.7	18.4	15.9	16.7	21.0	24.2	21.9	27.3	19.2	19.1

a. Including lignite.
b. Relates only to the consumption of electricity generated by the Bangkok Electric Works.
c. Including latex.
d. Net exports.
e. Production of Cebu Portland Cement Company only.
p. 1936 for Japan, unless otherwise indicated.
q. 1939.

3. VOLUME OF TRAFFIC: RAILWAYS, SEA-BORNE SHIPPING AND CIVIL AVIATION

Monthly averages or calendar months

	1938p	1948	1950	1951	1952	1952 II	1952 III	1952 IV	1953 I	1953 II	1953 Apr	1953 May	1953 Jun
RAILWAYS[a]													
Passenger-kilometres (Mn)													
Burma	59	40†	14†	28†	34†	40	33	40	46	57	52	62	58
China (Taiwan)	..	166	176	166	146	143	139	153	152	154	141	161	160
Cambodia & Viet-Nam	74	8	6	9	10	10	11	8	10	..	12	11	..
India‡	2,385	4,925	5,396	5,078	4,723	5,152	4,320	4,306	..	..	..	..	..
Japan‡	2,185	6,595	5,750	6,421	6,542	6,912	6,784	6,693	6,436	7,053	7,185	7,582	6,393
Korea (South)	..	236	..	125	216	227	256	223	171	228	238	235	212
Pakistan‡	—	656	761	820	820	812	842	766	*732*	..	708	732	..
Philippinesø	40	24	30	32	31	39	26	29	34	43	45	45	39
Thailand	25	109	120	152	188	209	167	171	222	207	245	207	168
Freight ton-kilometres (Mn)													
Burma	95	52†	7†	17†	24†	29	22	28	36	41	42	38	43
China (Taiwan)	..	52	74	78	96	106	95	93	98	123	107	133	129
Cambodia & Viet-Nam	28	7	11	16	15	21	16	15	19	..	20	22	..
India‡	2,968	3,040	3,638	3,807	3,866	3,829	3,847	3,743	..	..	..	..	..
Japan‡	1,305	2,109	2,560	3,074	3,166	3,218	3,196	3,337	3,106	3,290	3,393	3,411	3,065
Korea (South)	..	87	..	229	260	255	243	260	267	272	283	273	259
Malaya	22	26	33	33	31	32	33	31	32	..	32	32	..
Pakistan‡	—	319	370	414	434	380	361	500	*546*	..	558	543	..
Philippinesø	14	10	13	12	11	12	10	10	14	12	12	12	10
Thailand	38	25	40	45	46	44	45	50	59	53	54	54	51
Freight tons (1000)													
Ceylon	77	102	112	131	137	142	135	124	136	135	133	140	132
Hong Kong	40	8	29	23	19	11	23	27	27	22	25	25	16
Indonesia	810	292	449	497	457	429	482	470	480	455	466	439	459
INTERNATIONAL SEA-BORNE SHIPPING													
Freight Loaded (L) and Unloaded (U) in External Trade (1000 metric tons)													
Ceylon (Colombo) L	54	63	61	60	67	65	70	68	73	65	52	75	69
U	109	141	162	178	174	194	185	156	206	197	190	232	169
China (Taiwan) L	..	13	72	48	78	92	59	72	123	135	131	145	129
U	..	22	80	79	117	121	103	119	93	121	125	118	119
Hong Kong[b] L	..	89	189	142	128	122	125	132	137	130	145	126	120
U	..	197	325	261	284	308	261	299	300	261	278	255	250
Indonesia[c] L	916	432	704	746	820	726	890	1,028	775	1,076	1,269	977	981
U	167	160	233	212	367	210	482	603	279	371	405	320	397
Japan L	1,092	165	299	309	414	453	514	402	369	468	441	478	485
U	2,771	563	971	1,760	1,978	2,129	2,120	2,007	2,308	2,587	2,732	2,662	2,366
Malaya[d] (Singapore) L	..	121	197	217	198	195	193	211	395	409	399	402	425
U	..	163	329	410	401	420	370	409	640	656	695	620	652
Pakistan‡ L	—	..	130	154	144	117	95	180	182	..	156	177	..
U	—	..	310	335	375	374	353	422	351	..	321	298	..
Philippines (Manila) L	..	50	26	260	362	433	346	343	339	320	361	344	255
U	192[q]	193	156	220	214	189	254	208	221	195	175	176	235
Viet-Nam (Saigon) L	142	46	46	70	62	68	50	62	60	62	65	63	57
U	43	54	74	92	122	139	117	120	134	144	136	153	144
Thailand L	..	..	150	165	149	146	151	129	129	151	154	132	168
U	..	..	69	75	94	90	93	108	102	106	105	98	114
Entrances (E) and Clearances (C) of Vessels with Cargo in External Trade (1000 net registered tons)													
Burma[e] E	311	118	86	106	98	113	108	118	88	88	51	114	99
C	361	157	106	138	132	156	140	153	148	150	132	203	114
India E	760	646*	670	779	773	858	749	630	726	804	884	756	773
C	793	567*	607	652	739	697	740	878	836	904	935	906	870
CIVIL AVIATION[f]													
Passenger-kilometres (Mn)													
Ceylon	—	0.36	0.82	2.75	2.47	2.34	2.80	2.38	..	3.94	4.08	3.90	3.84
China (Taiwan)	..	..	0.82	1.61	2.49	..	2.15	3.88	3.07	3.49	3.24	3.77	3.47
India	0.11	23.65	31.30	34.49	31.93	27.70	28.92	36.43	34.58	..	34.04	..	..
Indonesia	..	8.49	12.35	13.30	13.28	13.49	13.87	13.17	13.57	14.57	14.20	14.30	15.20
Philippines	0.21	14.57	15.62	17.47	17.78	18.52	19.15	17.60	16.03	..	21.70	21.18	..
Thailand	—	0.93	1.62	2.01	2.26	2.62	2.08	1.98	2.11	2.64	2.67	2.57	2.67
Freight ton-kilometres (1000)													
Ceylon	—	2	10	197	159	140	177	172	..	163	165	163	162
China (Taiwan)	..	..	121	217	260	..	301	339	263	321	336	296	331
India	34	475	1,868	2,204	2,154	2,074	2,021	2,550	1,939	..	1,728	..	..
Indonesia	..	389	534	595	595	582	582	611	603	617	610	619	622
Philippines	..	540	637	793	809	725	749	960	..	..	..	..	..
Thailand	1	17	43	59	85	74	82	112	139	131	120	136	136

a. Railway traffic coverage:—India and Pakistan: class I railways, broad and metre gauge only; Indonesia: Postwar data relate to Federal area only; Japan: State Railways only; Philippines: Manila Rail Road Company.

b. Beginning 1952, including river steamers and junks and launches under 60 tons, which for 1952 amounted to 136,000 tons, i.e. about 9% of the annual total for freight loaded and to 390,000 tons, i.e. about 12% of the annual total for freight unloaded.

c. Postwar data relate to Federal area only.

d. Including coast-wise traffic of Malaya.

e. Total number of entrances and clearances made during each voyage but excluding sailing vessels. Annual figures relate to 12 months ending 30 Sep of postwar year stated.

f. Scheduled domestic and international routes.

p. Prewar data relate to 1936 for Japan, 1939 for Malaya, and April 1938 to Mar 1939 for Burma and Thailand; prewar figures for India include territory now under Pakistan for both railway traffic and sea-borne shipping. q. 1937.

4. VALUE OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS AND BALANCE OF TRADE

Monthly averages or calendar months — *Millions*

	1938	1948	1950	1951	1952	1952 II	1952 III	1952 IV	1953 I	1953 II	1953 Apr	1953 May	1953 Jun
N. BORNEO (M$)													
Imports	0.5	2.1	3.8	5.9	5.9	6.1	5.5	6.1	5.5	6.3	5.2	6.8	6.8
Exports	0.8	2.5	7.8	10.2	5.6	5.3	4.6	5.4	4.5	4.4	4.8	4.6	3.9
Balance	+ 0.3	+ 0.4	+ 4.0	+ 4.3	— 0.3	— 0.8	— 0.9	— 0.7	— 1.0	— 1.9	— 0.4	— 2.2	—2.9
BURMA (K.)													
Imports	18‡	49†	44	54	76	80	78	88	59	68	63	67	73
Exports	41‡	63†	63	82	105	111	94	116	51	147	163	164	114
Balance	+ 23	+ 14	+ 19	+ 28	+ 29	+ 31	+ 16	+ 28	— 8	+ 79	+100	+ 97	+ 41
CEYLON (Rs.)													
Imports	20	83	97	130	142	147	130	141	123	147	155	137	150
Exports	24	84	130	159	125	133	118	107	133	126	114	138	126
Balance	+ 4	+ 1	+ 33	+ 29	— 17	— 14	— 12	— 34	+ 10	— 21	— 41	+ 1	— 24
CHINA (Taiwan) (NT$)													
Imports[a]	..	..	66	99	147	143	174	158	124	123	101	161	105
Exports	..	..	50	90	122	184	95	93	132	114	72	150	120
Balance	..	..	— 16	— 9	— 25	+ 41	— 79	— 65	+ 8	— 9	— 29	— 11	+ 15
HONG KONG (HK$)													
Imports	52	173	317	408	316	285	309	333	363	346	362	315	361
Exports	51	134	313	372	243	222	259	272	259	259	271	268	237
Balance	— 1	— 39	— 4	— 36	— 73	— 63	— 50	— 61	—104	— 87	— 91	— 47	—124
INDIA‡ (Rs.)													
Imports	..	523	520	795	550	740	554	459	435	546	564	561	514
Sea & air-borne	130	452	484	728	529	725	540	423	417	536	557	554	497
Overland	..	71	36	67	21	15	14	36	18	10	7	7	17
Exports		378	521	619	482	494	524	468	432	400	389	410	401
Sea & air-borne	142	353	506	596	466	463	506	460	427	396	385	406	397
Overland	..	25	15	23	16	31	18	8	5	4	4	4	4
Balance	+ 12	—145	+ 1	—176	— 68	—246	— 30	+ 9	— 3	—146	—175	—151	—113
INDOCHINA (Pr.)													
Imports	16	197	361	523	770	788	747	707	714	..	894	750	..
Exports	24	98	136	232	201	222	161	165	167	..	185	127	..
Balance	+ 8	— 99	—225	—291	—569	—566	—586	—542	—547	..	—709	—623	..
INDONESIA[b] (Rp.)													
Imports	41	94	136	255	823	807	960	945	615	615	678	701	848
Exports	57	87	246	398	783	802	811	847	716	716	801	744	677
Balance	+ 16	— 7	+110	+143	— 40	— 5	—149	— 98	+101	+101	+123	+ 43	—171
JAPAN[c] (US$)													
Imports	87	57	81	170	169	175	166	179	182	205	212	206	197
Exports	84	22	68	113	106	109	96	100	93	107	96	112	114
Balance	— 3	— 35	— 13	— 57	— 63	— 66	— 70	— 79	— 89	— 98	—116	— 94	— 83
KOREA (South) (H.)													
Imports	..	7	4	10	587	373	834	970	1,003	2,483	2,514	2,338	2,597
Exports	..	6	27	41	167	147	212	211	228	342	433	285	307
Balance	..	— 1	+ 23	— 61	—420	—226	—622	—759	—775	—2,141	—2,081	—2,053	—2,290
MALAYA (M$)													
Imports	45	149	243	396	323	321	296	315	275	268	273	263	266
Exports	50	147	334	506	326	309	317	306	276	256	269	249	249
Balance	+ 4	— 2	+ 91	+110	+ 3	— 12	+ 21	— 9	+ 1	— 12	— 4	— 14	— 17
PAKISTAN‡ (Rs.)													
Imports	..	124	126	161	143	191	159	115	108	68	79	67	58
Sea-borne	..	99	114	143	129	171	141	106	101	63	75	62	51
Overland	..	25	12	18	14	20	18	9	7	5	4	5	7
Exports	..	86	191	192	128	113	83	150	166	104	91	113	108
Sea-borne	..	84	163	146	116	107	72	128	160	95	89	106	90
Overland	..	2	28	46	12	6	11	22	6	9	2	7	18
Balance	..	— 38	+ 65	+ 31	— 15	— 78	— 76	+ 35	+ 58	+ 36	+ 12	+ 46	+ 50
PHILIPPINES[a] (P.)													
Imports[d]	22.1	97.6	57.1	80.2	70.1	66.8	74.0	58.6	67.7	76.9	67.6	67.5	95.5
Exports	19.4	53.1	56.2	68.3	58.7	65.3	51.5	57.0	62.6	66.5	71.6	62.5	65.4
Balance	— 2.7	—44.5	— 0.9	—11.9	—11.4	— 1.5	—22.5	— 1.6	— 5.1	—10.4	+ 4.0	— 5.0	—30.1
THAILAND (Baht)													
Imports	11‡	241	387	487	471	454	486	507	*548*		..	..	..
Exports[e]	17‡	373	533	668	*505*	*485*	*506*	*405*	*480*		..	..	..
Balance	+ 6	+132	+146	+181	+ *34*	+ *31*	+ *20*	— *102*	— *68*		..	..	..

GENERAL NOTE: Trade Statistics of China (Taiwan), Indochina and Indonesia are based on "Special" trade system while all other countries compile their statistics on basis of "General" trade system. Monthly data are not published for Brunei and Sarawak. Monthly averages of annual figures are as follows:—

	1938	1948	1950	1951	1952
BRUNEI (M$)					
Imports	0.24	2.93	4.59	4.20	17.30
Exports	0.55	4.10	17.12	22.65	23.96
Balance	+0.31	+ 1.17	+12.53	+18.45	+ 6.66
SARAWAK (M$)					
Imports	1.86	8.23	24.11	31.98	31.91
Exports	2.18	14.27	31.22	42.36	36.55
Balance	+0.32	+ 6.04	+ 7.11	+10.38	+ 4.64

a. Imports exclude M.S.A./E.C.A. imports.

b. Figures for Jan 1952 cover the period 1 Jan—3 Feb. As from 4 Feb 1952, the rise in value over the preceding figures is principally due to a change in the conversion rate from 3.80 (excluding the value of the exchange certificate) to 11.40 rupiahs per U.S. dollar.

c. Figures under column for 1938 relate to 1936; they have been adjusted to include trade with Korea and Taiwan. Postwar imports include aid imports, exports include procurements for U.S. forces in Korea (South) and U.S. forces.

d. Imports valued f.o.b.

e. Annual figures are estimates by the Bank of Thailand for purposes of the balance of payments and allow for the substantial under valuation in Customs Statistics of the principal export products. Monthly figures are tentative estimates by ECAFE Secretariat.

EXTERNAL TRADE

5. DIRECTION OF IMPORT TRADE

Monthly averages or calendar months — *Millions*

	1938	1948	1950	1951	1952	1952 II	1952 III	1952 IV	1953 I	1953 II	1953 Apr	1953 May	1953 Jun
BURMA (K.) from													
China	—	1.4†	1.0	1.2	1.9	3.4	1.2	2.7	0.1	0.2	..	..	..
Hong Kong	0.3‡	1.1†	0.5	1.8	3.2	4.6	3.5	1.5	2.6	2.1	..	..	..
India	10.0‡	12.4†	19.7	14.8	24.6	22.7	27.4	33.7	15.5	17.6	..	..	..
Indonesia	—	—	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.6	0.7	0.1	..	..	..
Japan	1.2‡	0.3†	4.7	9.4	8.9	12.8	9.3	7.2	10.2	9.6	..	..	..
Malaya	0.5‡	1.7†	1.1	3.7	4.0	5.1	5.0	2.9	1.9	5.2	..	..	..
United Kingdom	3·3‡	23.2†	9.8	13.3	17.1	16.4	17.4	16.8	16.2	17.8	..	..	..
United States	0.6‡	1.8†	1.3	1.4	4.0	5.3	3.3	2.7	2.5	3.2	..	..	..
CEYLON (Rs.) from													
Burma	2.9	14.3	19.0	19.1	15.4	17.1	14.3	10.3	5.8	10.8	16.9	9.6	5.8
China	0.1	2.0	0·2	0.4	2.7	0.2	0.6	9.9	16.5	18.6	21.7	18.5	15.7
India	4.3	10.5	15.1	15.7	17.7	17.0	17.0	19.8	18.6	16.3	19.0	13.4	16.5
Indonesia	1.4	0.3	0.9	1.2	0.6	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	—	0.1	—	—
Japan	1·3	1.1	2.6	6.6	8.6	7.6	4.8	10.7	5.4	6.5	6.1	6.4	7.0
Malaya	0.2	0.3	0.7	0.8	1.7	1.0	1.4	1.6	1.7	2.5	1.0	3.2	3.2
Pakistan	..	0.9	1.1	2.6	1.0	0.7	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.2	1.1	0.4
Thailand	0.5	0.7	4.7	1.3	1.7	1.7	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.7	0.6
United Kingdom	4.0	14.3	19.2	28.5	31.8	35.9	27.9	27.5	26.5	35.1	26.7	37.0	41.7
United States	0.4	6.3	2.9	6.9	12.5	15.1	11.0	14.8	5.0	6.1	9.2	2.6	6.7
Canada	0.1	0.7	1.7	1.4	3.2	4.8	2.6	2.4	0.5	3.8	6.5	4.0	0.9
Australia	0.5	10.4	6.7	10.3	10.3	11.6	13.1	8.3	13.1	18.7	18.7	19.2	18.1
CHINA (Taiwan) (NT$) from													
Hong Kong	..	..	12.1	13.0	18.9	21.5	18.7	18.5	12.0	10.4	9.2	12.6	9.6
India	..	..	2.1	0.3	2.6	1.7	3.6	3.9	0.8	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1
Japan	..	..	21.1	47.9	65.9	65.3	74.4	76.9	51.5	51.4	47.6	54.3	52.3
Malaya	..	..	0.5	1.8	1.4	1.5	3.2	0.8	2.3	3.0	3.6	3.0	2.4
Thailand	..	..	0.7	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.9	0.2	—	—	0.1	—	0.1
United Kingdom	..	..	2.2	3.6	4.8	5.5	5.2	4.3	4.3	5.0	4.7	6.9	3.4
United States	..	..	12.3	16.3	32.8	28.1	35.3	33.7	25.5	23.2	20.8	24.9	24.0
Canada	..	..	1.9	1.8	2.5	1.4	1.8	4.0	4.8	1.7	1.8	2.8	0.5
Australia	..	..	3.3	2.2	1.8	0.8	1.5	3.2	2.8	3.1	2.3	3.1	3.9
HONG KONG (HK$) from													
N. Borneo	0.2	0.8	1.0	2.5	2.2	2.5	2.0	2.0	3.2	2.2	1.9	2.0	2.5
Burma	0.4	2.9	1.5	0.8	2.4	2.1	3.8	1.7	5.9	5.0	1.4	0.8	12.9
China (Mainland)	19.4	35.9	71.4	71.9	69.2	53.5	78.5	82.6	85.3	76.3	83.8	69.4	75.8
China (Taiwan)	..	..		5.2	4.0	3.9	4.4	2.2	5.1	12.5	7.9	22.3	7.3
India	1.0	4.0	14.0	13.2	8.4	8.0	9.9	10.4	4.8	3.9	2.5	5.5	3.7
Indochina	2.9	2.5	2.5	4.2	3.6	5.9	2.9	1.8	2.3	5.7	7.7	3.9	5.3
Indonesia	3.4	3.4	6.7	7.5	2.3	1.8	1.6	2.4	2.5	2.8	3.5	1.3	3.7
Japan	1.6	6.6	19.2	32.7	40.2	41.1	42.4	39.1	26.6	34.2	33.2	25.8	43.6
Malaya	0.6	7.1	24.9	32.8	13.7	13.2	14.6	15.2	17.1	14.3	12.0	17.6	13.2
Pakistan	..	—	7.8	12.0	7.5	2.3	1.1	7.0	7.6	11.6	11.1	7.3	16.5
Philippines	0.2	0.8	1.4	1.1	0.9	1.0	0.4	1.1	0.7	1.1	1.3	1.3	0.8
Thailand	3.0	8.0	15.2	13.0	17.1	24.4	14.4	12.9	28.9	21.4	22.8	19.4	22.1
Macao	1.1	7.4	8.7	8.6	5.2	5.3	4.5	4.5	6.2	5.9	5.7	6.5	5.6
United Kingdom	4.7	25.1	33.7	51.6	39.2	33.5	37.3	41.8	45.2	42.2	42.0	41.3	43.5
United States	4.6	32.3	54.7	31.1	18.4	19.9	14.8	16.8	16.2	21.4	18.7	18.4	27.1
France	0·3	1.9	3.7	10.3	5.3	3.9	6.6	7.0	9.0	3.7	4.4	4.1	2.7
INDIA[a] (Rs.) from													
Burma	18.9	16.0*	6.6	19.5	25.9	31.7	33.9	16.1	6.4	43.1	22.9	50.3	50.0
Japan	13.0	1.1*	6.2	18.5	16.1	13.0	18.6	12.2	8.8	14.2	12.7	21.0	8.9
Malaya	3.2	5.8*	11.8	19.0	13.7	12.4	11.3	15.4	10.2	15.1	11.1	19.1	15.2
Pakistan	..	12.5*	34.0	86.4	*21.9*	14.1	11.4	*21.1*	*8.1*	*9.6*	6.0	5.5	*17.3*
United Kingdom	40.1	113.5*	97.7	119.2	124.1	121.5	118.5	105.3	116.4	113.2	123.7	116.6	99.3
United States	9.5	86.6*	82.8	167.3	222.5	329.6	114.5	73.0	83.2	98.1	126.9	114.9	52.3
Canada	0.6	5.9*	8.8	18.5	24.7	31.6	39.0	8.3	18.8	9.4	15.0	3.3	9.8
Australia	1.7	19.5*	33.2	14.9	12.5	17.9	6.5	8.3	9.7	36.7	28.9	39.5	41.8
INDOCHINA (Pr.) from													
China	1.2	8.9	9.3	11.5	12.6	12.4	15.9	11.9	15.5	..	18.8	6.6	..
Hong Kong	1.2	1.1	1.2	0.7	2.0	1.5	2.1	2.6	2.0	..	5.3	3.3	..
India and Pakistan	0.5	2·4	2.6	2.9	3.2	2.3	—	0.3	0.6	..	12.0	2.4	..
Indonesia	0.7	3.6	9.2	12.4	17.0	17.0	24.4	12.0	18.0	..	27.3	9.7	..
Thailand	0.3	5.3	2.1	3.2	2.8	2.7	2.1	3.2	3.4	..	5.0	3.5	..
United States	0.8	24·9	20.8	28.0	38.8	36.0	39.6	29.3	31.1	..	57.9	24.7	..
France	8.5	123.2	275.0	403.1	605.0	628.6	574.9	556.1	571.9	..	670.5	609.8	..

5. DIRECTION OF IMPORT TRADE *(Cont'd)*

Monthly averages or calendar months — *Millions*

	1938	1948	1950	1951	1952	1952 II	1952 III	1952 IV	1953 I	1953 II	1953 Apr	1953 May	1953 Jun
INDONESIA (Rp.) from													
Burma	0.6	2.0	5.6	8.3	28.5	36.5	31.6	31.1	47.8	53.1	25.0	55.3	79.0
China	0.7	2.3	0.7	0.9	5.2	2.0	15.6	1.8	0.4	2.1	0.8	2.6	3.0
Hong Kong	0.5	2.1	6.8	14.0	74.3	66.8	88.3	93.1	34.6	91.4	78.8	99.0	96.4
India	0.9	1.2	7.0	8.5	18.2	14.2	19.8	25.1	14.5	23.8	23.1	20.6	27.7
Japan	6.0	15.6	13.4	47.7	120.5	88.0	119.3	127.4	62.2	111.4	83.1	101.8	149.4
Malaya	3.4	2.6	6.1	12.3	16.8	16.4	18.8	15.0	8.3	17.2	10.5	19.6	21.4
Philippines	0.1	0.1	—	0.1	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.5	0.1	0.4
Thailand	0.2	2.7	3.2	7.4	46.3	31.6	35.7	44.2	27.2	11.1	17.6	7.2	8.6
Netherlands	8.4	18.4	21.9	30.9	112.8	102.1	128.4	125.8	73.0	80.5	77.6	54.6	109.2
United Kingdom	3.0	7.9	9.3	16.5	62.7	50.3	69.2	79.1	50.3	43.1	39.8	38.3	51.1
United States	3.6	21.2	26.3	51.0	150.5	147.9	163.3	136.7	131.4	130.6	101.5	169.6	120.6
Australia	1.1	2.7	0.9	3.3	12.4	16.1	12.0	12.8	6.2	13.9	4.4	13.6	23.7
JAPAN[b] (US$) from													
China	17.8	2.1	6.5	6.7	6.6	6.8	4.0	6.8	7.3	5.9	4.8	6.8	6.0
Hong Kong	..	0.3	—	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	1.1	0.7	0.5
India	9.0	2.3	1.5	5.4	6.1	4.8	8.8	7.7	6.6	6.9	7.9	5.1	7.7
Indonesia	2.7	1.0	1.1	5.2	2.3	1.5	2.9	3.4	3.9	4.8	6.3	3.8	4.2
Korea	12.3	0.4	1.3	0.5	1.7	2.2	2.2	1.7	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7
Malaya	1.9	0.9	3.3	5.4	5.1	5.5	4.4	5.9	4.4	5.0	5.0	5.1	5.0
Philippines	0.9	0.8	1.9	4.4	4.3	4.2	5.2	4.6	3.8	5.4	5.1	5.4	5.6
United Kingdom	1.8	0.4	0.5	3.0	3.1	3.3	2.0	3.3	2.8	3.7	3.5	3.7	3.8
United States	20.5	36.7	35.6	62.9	64.0	79.7	60.9	55.6	60.3	59.3	66.5	64.8	46.6
Australia	4.4	0.7	6.4	12.7	11.1	9.4	9.7	12.9	16.7	19.3	20.8	16.8	20.4
Canada	1.8	0.3	1.3	7.7	9.2	8.6	9.0	12.1	11.0	5.0	4.6	6.0	4.4
MALAYA (M$) from													
N. Borneo	0.2	1.3	4.3	4.7	2.3	2.3	1.8	1.7	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.2
Brunei	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Sarawak	2.0	6.4	13.6	18.1	16.0	13.0	18.7	17.4	12.6	15.0	15.0	13.3	16.7
Burma	2.1	7.7	3.4	6.7	6.4	6.3	5.5	7.2	8.1	7.5	2.7	5.0	14.8
China	2.0	9.5	10.3	12.5	12.9	18.5	10.5	10.0	14.3	12.7	12.1	14.3	11.7
Hong Kong	0.7	3.8	7.5	10.7	8.2	8.2	7.3	7.9	9.9	7.3	7.3	7.8	6.7
India	1.4	2.9	16.3	17.2	11.1	7.1	13.1	16.3	7.6	8.0	9.2	7.3	7.6
Indochina	1.2	2.5	1.5	3.4	2.7	3.0	2.2	1.5	2.5	4.3	3.7	6.0	3.3
Indonesia	12.7	29.4	64.2	119.0	74.8	67.4	75.0	76.2	64.6	59.4	56.6	60.4	61.2
Japan	1.0	1.1	7.8	20.3	20.8	26.9	15.1	13.3	9.0	12.3	13.7	11.1	12.0
Thailand	7.3	10.7	26.5	31.9	27.0	25.0	25.7	30.6	25.8	23.1	23.0	23.1	23.1
United Kingdom	8.5	28.7	42.2	65.7	68.3	66.8	57.9	64.6	60.7	59.1	62.4	61.0	53.8
United States	1.4	17.4	7.4	18.2	15.2	16.2	10.4	13.1	12.0	11.7	13.2	10.4	11.3
Canada	0.4	1.9	1.4	2.8	3.0	3.6	2.1	1.6	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.3
Oceania	1.2	7.9	9.5	12.2	13.9	13.8	11.5	15.1	14.8	12.8	17.8	7.1	13.4
PAKISTAN[c] (M$) from													
Burma	..	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.8	0.5	0.1	—	—	—	—	—
Ceylon	..	2.4	2.3	2.1	2.5	2.1	2.9	1.9	0.8	0.4	0.7	0.5	0.1
China	..	5.7	5.1	4.7	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.3	0.9	0.2	1.8	0.8
India	..	37.4	11.5	7.0	9.8	14.1	10.0	3.0	1.8	0.9	1.3	0.7	0.6
Japan	..	0.8	14.4	29.9	30.8	41.7	24.4	12.6	8.5	2.5	3.9	2.5	1.1
Malaya	..	1.8	1.2	2.9	2.0	1.4	2.3	1.8	1.2	1.5	1.0	0.8	2.7
United Kingdom	..	22.5	25.0	30.9	34.1	44.2	37.4	21.7	23.2	7.8	6.3	9.2	7.9
United States	..	6.6	8.7	8.8	10.1	10.1	10.3	6.8	6.5	3.6	2.6	3.7	4.4
PHILIPPINES (P.) from													
China	..	3.8	—	—	0.1	0.1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hong Kong	..	0.1	1.5	1.4	1.0	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3
India	..	1.1	0.4	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.4
Indonesia	..	2.5	0.7	1.8	2.0	1.4	2.3	1.1	0.8	1.4	1.3	0.3	2.7
Japan	..	0.3	2.4	5.5	3.1	3.6	3.0	2.6	3.7	3.7	4.6	2.9	3.6
Thailand	..	0.1	0.2	2.4	0.8	—	2.0	1.3	—	—	—	—	—
United Kingdom	..	0.9	0.9	1.1	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.2
United States	..	78.3	42.5	56.9	51.2	51.3	48.7	44.8	53.6	61.1	53.1	55.2	74.9

a. Overland imports from Pakistan in 1948 excluded.

b. Prewar figures relate to 1936. Imports from India include Burma and Pakistan in 1936 and Pakistan in 1948.

c. Excluding overland trade. Data beginning 1952 exclude government imports.

6. DIRECTION OF EXPORT TRADE

Monthly averages or calendar months — *Millions*

FROM	1938	1948	1950	1951	1952	1952 II	1952 III	1952 IV	1953 I	1953 II	1953 Apr	1953 May	1953 Jun
BURMA (K.) to													
Ceylon	2.2‡	11.6†	18.9	19.1	15.6	14.4	13.9	15.3	6.6	9.5	..	..	..
China	0.2‡	3.7†	1.9	0.7	—	—	—	0.9	—	2.3	..	..	..
Hong Kong	0.3‡	1.6†	1.3	0.9	2.1	1.4	2.3	2.0	3.4	5.0	..	..	..
India	22.0‡	25.2†	11.4	17.6	25.6	31.3	28.7	15.0	3.0	47.9	..	..	..
Indonesia	0.6‡	2.7†	8.6	9.8	13.1	11.3	8.4	18.0	0.9	29.1	..	..	..
Japan	0.8‡	0.1†	8.1	11.5	13.1	12.3	6.5	24.2	5.0	15.0	..	..	..
Malaya	2.8‡	10.1†	3.5	7.3	9.8	8.4	10.1	12.9	11.7	11.5	..	..	..
Pakistan	..	..	0.5	0.6	0.7	1.5	0.5	0.3	0.1	—	..	..	..
Philippines	—	0.2†	—	—	2.2	2.4	6.2	—	—	—	..	..	..
United Kingdom	5.7‡	5.6†	2.3	5.5	9.9	11.9	8.2	14.2	9.1	5.6	..	..	..
United States	0.1‡	0.6†	0.2	0.5	1.0	1.1	0.9	0.8	2.1	2.1	..	..	..
CEYLON[a] (Rs.) to													
China	—	—	—	3.0	10.3	14.3	8.1	13.3	22.3	17.2	22.9	17.3	11.5
India	0.7	1.7	2.4	3.9	3.0	3.0	3.2	1.9	2.8	1.8	1.6	1.5	2.4
Japan	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.6	0.9	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.7
Pakistan	..	1.5	3.2	2.8	3.3	2.9	4.0	2.6	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.2
United Kingdom	11.8	25.1	30.5	48.8	34.5	40.1	30.5	30.0	32.2	36.7	26.8	42.5	40.6
United States	2.8	13.8	27.7	16.5	13.0	11.3	12.9	11.3	13.8	9.1	8.5	9.9	9.0
Canada	0.8	3.3	7.8	6.1	5.9	5.1	5.7	6.2	9.0	4.7	5.7	5.1	3.3
Australia	0.9	7.0	9.5	11.0	7.6	8.6	8.9	6.1	8.3	13.1	11.4	12.4	15.6
New Zealand	0.5	1.8	3.2	3.2	1.7	1.6	1.9	1.8	2.7	2.5	0.4	6.1	1.0
CHINA (Taiwan) (NT$) to													
Hong Kong	..	..	8.5	13.4	9.4	12.2	8.6	6.3	12.5	28.6	15.1	57.3	13.3
Japan	..	..	18.0	43.6	64.3	73.6	30.9	63.4	68.2	26.1	17.7	37.1	23.6
Malaya	..	..	3.4	9.4	11.8	40.9	1.6	0.3	13.7	14.1	12.7	11.8	17.7
Thailand	..	..	0.1	1.3	3.3	2.4	4.4	3.4	0.9	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.5
Egypt[b]	..	..	8.8	0.4	4.0	7.4	8.4	—	9.3	3.9	—	—	11.7
United Kingdom	..	..	0.8	2.3	5.1	13.0	6.2	0.2	0.4	11.2	0.7	21.4	11.5
United States	..	..	2.8	5.3	4.3	5.6	4.6	4.9	8.9	6.9	6.9	7.9	5.8
HONG KONG (HK$) to													
N. Borneo	0.1	0.6	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.3	1.6	1.7	2.3	2.2	2.3	2.1	2.1
Burma	0.3	1.0	2.4	3.4	4.4	7.5	3.6	2.6	3.2	2.7	3.5	2.3	2.2
China (Mainland)	..	..	121.6	133.7	43.3	35.0	51.0	67.0	80.4	41.0	59.7	38.7	24.5
China (Taiwan)	..	..		11.6	17.3	17.8	17.0	17.3	9.5	7.7	8.3	7.8	6.9
Ceylon	0.1	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.3	1.1	1.5	1.6	1.1	1.2	0.9	1.0
India	0.4	4.0	2.0	2.2	1.0	0.9	1.8	0.7	1.8	1.8	1.5	1.6	2.2
Indochina	1.9	1.6	1.9	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.7	3.0	3.6	3.0	2.4
Indonesia	1.2	5.7	10.2	20.4	44.0	35.8	59.3	57.7	22.2	59.2	51.7	64.4	61.4
Japan	0.3	4.1	10.1	16.0	10.3	6.8	14.3	11.6	19.4	26.2	28.9	30.2	19.7
Malaya	3.1	17.1	45.2	61.7	34.8	32.4	31.8	31.9	34.5	27.2	26.1	29.2	26.4
Pakistan	..	—	10.9	15.6	4.6	1.5	4.2	1.2	1.2	2.5	1.9	1.4	4.3
Philippines	0.8	11.4	6.9	5.8	3.8	4.0	3.6	4.9	4.3	5.9	5.5	5.6	6.6
Thailand	1.3	11.7	8.2	7.5	20.3	28.4	17.9	16.1	12.6	15.6	9.6	16.4	20.7
Macao	1.7	11.4	17.4	19.0	7.4	6.7	6.6	8.8	7.9	8.5	7.0	12.5	6.0
United Kingdom	1.8	6.3	14.0	17.9	6.9	4.5	6.5	6.2	9.8	11.0	12.0	10.0	10.9
United States	4.3	12.7	25.7	13.5	9.5	8.7	4.3	4.9	5.9	5.0	6.2	5.0	3.7
INDIA[c] (Rs.) to													
Burma	8.4	10.0*	18.8	15.5	19.6	27.2	19.0	14.9	12.5	18.5	13.8	22.0	19.6
Ceylon	4.2	9.5*	14.0	14.2	16.4	13.7	14.5	19.6	16.0	12.7	10.4	14.7	13.0
China	1.3	5.6*	2.0	5.0	2.5	—	1.5	0.4	0.4	1.6	1.0	1.1	2.6
Pakistan	..	40.6*	23.8	27.0	38.7	56.5	29.3	11.6	*6.2*	*4.1*	3.8	4.0	*4.5*
United Kingdom	46.0	78.3*	95.7	156.6	104.3	78.4	97.2	116.8	113.6	85.8	82.5	82.2	92.7
United States	11.2	59.7*	80.5	108.4	95.5	94.0	97.6	91.8	86.5	75.5	86.7	76.3	63.5
Canada	1.7	6.9*	10.5	14.3	10.6	9.9	11.9	7.8	13.3	9.8	12.3	7.4	9.7
Australia	2.5	17.2*	23.3	37.4	19.3	26.5	12.4	6.3	11.6	16.4	10.5	15.8	23.0
INDOCHINA (Pr.) to													
China	0.6	2.1	0.4	1.0	0.2	—	—	—	—	..	—	—	..
Hong Kong	2.3	11.2	15.5	21.3	25.6	30.7	21.8	17.7	22.3	..	43.7	13.9	..
Malaya	2.5	9.4	11.6	25.0	19.0	20.4	17.6	11.4	23.7	..	42.3	35.5	..
Thailand	0.1	3.7	3.1	3.7	7.8	6.9	13.2	6.0	4.8	..	18.4	15.1	..
United States	2.1	2.2	25.6	25.0	21.2	10.9	27.7	29.3	18.7	..	10.9	9.7	..
France	11.4	42.6	49.9	87.9	60.9	42.9	49.2	62.4	53.0	..	19.9	32.8	..
INDONESIA (Rp.) to													
Hong Kong	1.1	1.6	1.2	1.6	2.6	1.3	3.1	2.7	1.6	2.5	1.4	4.6	1.5
India	0.4	0.1	0.8	1.2	1.3	0.3	1.1	3.1	3.6	0.1	0.3	—	0.1
Japan	1.8	2.1	3.2	12.7	23.2	11.1	27.9	30.0	40.5	34.2	37.6	34.2	30.9
Malaya	10.7	16.6	83.2	131.8	235.3	183.9	196.3	245.4	148.1	192.8	188.5	207.0	183.0
Philippines	0.5	0.8	1.4	2.1	7.1	3.8	9.2	12.4	5.6	7.1	12.7	4.1	4.6
Thailand	0.2	0.3	1.0	1.5	5.9	4.2	6.6	7.9	6.6	7.5	5.1	10.3	7.1
Netherlands	11.5	31.0	55.4	82.7	183.5	165.1	184.1	177.4	181.6	148.9	160.5	146.3	140.0
United Kingdom	3.1	1.7	8.3	24.7	23.3	22.8	14.1	15.7	14.0	16.8	14.7	16.5	19.3
United States	8.2	15.2	37.2	65.3	221.6	155.0	167.3	188.5	172.1	190.1	216.7	198.5	155.3
Australia	2.4	0.8	4.2	9.4	21.4	16.5	12.9	23.8	17.4	14.3	16.8	15.3	10.7

6. DIRECTION OF EXPORT TRADE *(Cont'd)*

Monthly averages or calendar months

Millions

FROM	1938	1948	1950	1951	1952	1952			1953				
						II	III	IV	I	II	Apr	May	Jun
JAPAN[d] (US$) to													
China	21.6	0.3	4.8	4.7	5.1	5.5	5.0	5.9	4.2	5.3	4.5	6.0	5.4
Hong Kong	..	..	5.3	5.1	6.7	7.1	6.5	6.5	4.3	5.4	4.1	5.2	6.8
India	6.3	0.7	1.7	4.3	3.3	3.4	3.6	2.2	3.0	2.3	2.7	2.2	2.0
Indonesia	3.1	4.7	3.9	10.7	5.0	3.5	5.2	4.8	3.7	7.4	6.5	6.8	9.0
Korea	15.4	1.5	1.5	1.2	4.2	4.9	5.7	4.3	6.9	12.6	12.3	13.3	12.1
Malaya	1.5	0.5	1.5	5.7	5.3	5.8	3.8	3.5	3.0	4.0	3.6	4.3	4.1
Philippines	1.3	0.3	1.5	3.2	1.6	2.0	1.6	1.6	2.0	1.9	2.0	1.9	1.9
United Kingdom	3.6	1.4	2.2	4.5	6.1	10.5	3.9	2.7	4.8	2.3	1.6	4.3	1.1
United States	14.4	5.5	14.9	15.4	19.1	15.4	22.3	23.7	18.2	21.8	19.4	22.4	23.8
MALAYA (M$) to													
N. Borneo	0.2	1.2	2.6	3.5	3.4	3.3	3.0	3.4	2.9	3.5	4.2	3.7	2.7
Brunei	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.9	0.7	1.0	1.0	2.1	1.2	3.0	2.1
Sarawak	0.7	2.6	4.9	5.8	5.6	5.2	6.0	5.5	5.3	5.2	4.1	5.2	6.4
Burma	0.3	1.0	1.1	4.1	3.8	3.5	4.5	3.4	3.4	2.8	3.5	2.3	2.7
Ceylon	0.2	0.8	1.9	2.0	1.1	0.6	1.5	1.6	2.4	1.5	0.8	3.2	0.7
China	0.3	1.3	10.4	8.6	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.2	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.7
Hong Kong	0.6	3.4	16.9	17.9	4.5	4.0	5.1	5.8	6.1	7.1	7.6	7.6	6.1
India	1.8	5.3	6.3	9.7	7.4	6.0	9.3	8.3	7.8	10.9	13.7	8.2	10.9
Indochina	0.1	0.7	1.0	1.5	1.8	1.3	1.6	2.4	2.2	2.1	2.9	1.2	2.3
Indonesia	3.4	16.1	21.4	40.6	34.6	35.5	33.2	34.3	17.4	29.4	17.8	30.0	40.4
Japan	4.5	1.6	9.6	13.1	12.9	12.4	12.9	12.3	13.3	11.3	11.0	13.3	9.6
Pakistan	..	0.6	1.0	2.1	1.3	0.9	1.7	0.5	0.3	0.7	0.4	1.4	0.4
Philippines	0.1	0.5	1.3	1.4	2.2	2.1	3.6	1.4	3.9	2.7	4.2	0.8	3.1
Thailand	1.3	4.1	6.0	8.0	11.8	12.4	11.0	10.5	11.9	8.2	8.6	8.2	7.8
United Kingdom	6.8	20.0	45.6	101.3	67.9	63.4	72.2	55.2	52.1	42.1	44.8	41.7	39.9
United States	14.4	38.2	87.3	99.5	54.7	51.3	40.8	52.3	49.6	38.3	47.6	38.8	28.5
Canada	1.5	3.7	8.2	12.8	5.5	5.6	4.8	5.8	6.1	4.9	5.6	5.3	3.8
Oceania	2.5	5.1	14.1	28.3	15.5	14.6	17.8	16.1	14.0	17.9	16.6	18.9	18.3
PAKISTAN[e] (Rs.) to													
Burma	..	0.3‡	0.1	1.0	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.9	0.1	0.1	0.1
Ceylon	..	1.2‡	0.8	1.5	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.2
China	..	2.7‡	2.6	12.5	23.1	45.2	32.4	—	—	3.9	—	—	11.7
Hong Kong	..	2.1‡	9.6	9.4	3.3	0.5	1.4	5.5	4.2	5.1	4.8	4.6	5.9
India	..	19.1‡	2.9	6.4	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	—	0.1	0.3
Japan	..	1.0‡	12.1	21.2	24.3	8.1	7.9	27.9	34.1	23.4	21.7	35.7	12.6
Malaya	..	0.1‡	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	—	—	—	—
United Kingdom	..	12.3‡	36.2	26.4	18.8	7.6	8.1	15.4	32.4	18.7	20.1	19.8	16.3
United States	..	10.9‡	10.1	8.8	6.2	6.4	4.7	8.1	13.6	7.2	6.8	9.4	5.3
PHILIPPINES (P.) to													
China	..	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1	—	0.1	0.1	—	0.1
Hong Kong	..	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.2
India	..	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	—	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	—
Indonesia	..	0.9	—	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	—	—	0.1	—
Japan	..	2.6	3.7	5.0	6.4	6.3	7.5	6.9	5.9	8.3	7.6	7.0	10.2
Korea	..	0.3	0.4	—	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.8
Malaya	..	0.1	—	0.1	0.1	0.1	—	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	—	0.1
Thailand	..	0.1	0.1	—	0.1	0.1	0.1	—	—	—	0.1	—	—
United Kingdom	..	0.6	0.9	2.1	1.0	0.9	0.6	0.7	1.1	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.7
United States	..	34.8	40.9	43.0	39.5	49.0	32.2	37.1	46.1	48.5	54.1	47.8	43.5

a. Prior to 1953, exports to China from Ceylon relate to rubber only.

b. Including Anglo-Egyptian Sudan.

c. Overland exports to Pakistan in 1948 excluded.

d. Prewar figures relate to 1936. Exports to India include Burma and Pakistan in 1936 and Pakistan in 1948.

e. Excluding overland trade. Data beginning 1952 exclude government exports.

EXTERNAL TRADE

7. VALUE OF IMPORTS BY PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES AND/OR COMMODITY GROUPS

Monthly averages or calendar months — *Millions*

	1938[g]	1948	1950	1951	1952	1952 II	1952 III	1952 IV	1953 I	1953 II	1953 Apr	1953 May	1953 Jun
BURMA (K.)													
Cotton yarn and fabrics (incl. thread)	3.4‡	9.2†	10.6†	13.3	14.1	15.3	19.4	14.5	16.0	16.0	16.5	13.3	18.3
Base metals and manufactures thereof	2.1‡	5.9†	1.9†	3.1	6.0	7.5	6.7	5.6	5.5	7.4	6.4	9.2	6.7
Machinery and transport equipment	1.8‡	9.3†	4.3†	3.9	6.7	7.6	6.9	5.8	8.6	6.8	7.0	7.4	6.0
CEYLON (Rs.)													
Food and drink	8.7	42.5	48.9	57.0	64.5	64.3	59.2	68.1	56.9	71.0	88.3	60.2	64.5
Raw materials and articles mainly unmanufactured	2.8	8.8	9.9	13.5	14.3	11.1	16.1	13.7	15.8	15.2	14.4	15.3	15.8
Articles wholly or mainly manufactured	7.8	29.9	37.7	58.2	61.7	69.8	53.3	57.8	48.8	59.3	51.0	60.8	66.0
Cotton yarn and manufactures	1.4	10.3	10.5	11.8	10.4	12.2	9.7	8.7	8.8	9.6	9.0	9.9	10.0
Machinery and vehicles	1.0	5.2	5.7	11.0	14.1	16.8	11.3	12.3	11.2	18.0	12.0	16.0	20.4
Base metals and manufactures thereof	0.9	2.6	3.7	6.1	6.2	6.4	6.6	5.2	5.3	6.2	5.3	6.5	6.7
Electrical goods and apparatus	0.3	0.9	1.4	2.3	1.8	1.6	1.4	2.2	1.4	2.0	1.6	2.3	2.0
CHINA (Taiwan) (NT$)													
Beans and peas	..	..	2.7	6.9	11.1	5.7	12.9	16.8	4.8	5.2	3.7	8.4	3.5
Wheat flour	..	..	3.9	2.2	8.3	4.3	12.5	14.5	6.8	5.0	11.9	3.0	0.3
Cotton piecegoods	..	..	9.8	7.2	3.6	5.8	4.8	3.3	3.9	—	—	—	—
Fertilizers, chemical or artificial	..	..	5.8	5.9	9.1	7.1	14.4	12.4	9.4	—	—	—	—
Medecines and drugs	..	..	2.2	3.6	11.6	12.6	13.6	8.5	6.5	7.2	5.4	8.3	7.8
Iron and steel manufactures	..	..	2.1	2.3	6.6	6.6	7.3	6.9	3.2	1.1	6.0	7.8	6.4
Machinery and vehicles	..	..	3.8	5.5	11.5	12.6	12.6	11.9	12.7	4.2	8.3	12.4	10.1
INDIA (Rs.)													
Food and drink	14.9	73.7	102.6	175.8	188.1	266.7	162.6	65.8	85.9	144.3	150.1	152.0	124.5
Raw materials and articles mainly unmanufactured	30.5	88.3	148.7	186.9	186.1	206.3	131.6	148.5	109.4	159.1	164.0	143.4	167.9
Cotton, raw and waste	9.2	38.8	72.7	94.3	95.8	123.0	51.9	45.0	35.6	64.2	73.8	57.7	61.1
Mineral oils	13.6[h]	26.7	45.7	53.2	65.0	63.4	57.7	81.2	*54.4*	*77.0*	*76.7*	*67.7*	*84.5*
Articles wholly or mainly manufactured	78.0	224.5	203.8	270.7	247.1	241.9	241.1	205.1	233.2	228.1	229.2	253.7	201.2
Machinery and vehicles	22.1	89.4	94.9	104.1	104.5	103.7	96.7	86.0	98.8	90.8	95.1	98.2	79.0
Implements and instruments	4.9[i]	7.7	6.4	10.5	8.5	8.9	7.7	6.3	*9.4*	*12.4*	*13.1*	*13.5*	*10.6*
Electrical goods and apparatus	2.8	8.0	8.5	7.6	10.8	9.8	11.7	11.0	13.5	13.3	14.2	13.5	12.4
Base metals and manufactures thereof	8.9	26.4	40.0	33.2	37.4	38.9	37.6	30.9	33.0	29.7	28.0	34.3	26.8
INDOCHINA (Pr.)													
Live animals and food	1.0	15.6	41.4	83.4	83.5	68.0	82.2	96.4	75.1	..	72.0	105.4	..
Textiles and apparel, incl. yarn and thread	4.4	42.5	99.7	167.9	176.3	174.0	176.6	155.5	162.3	..	229.3	121.1	..
Machinery and vehicles (incl. electric machinery and fittings) and base metals and manufactures thereof	3.3	56.8	76.1	128.0	171.5	190.4	180.8	148.6	163.4	..	193.5	188.7	..
INDONESIA[a] (Rp.)													
Food	7.3	9.5	18.3	27.0	162.3	209.6	172.5	126.1	136.5	143.5	92.6	188.1	149.7
Textiles	10.3	23.5	36.0	61.7	217.8	185.4	224.1	240.2	152.1	230.1	181.0	218.2	291.1
Base metals (incl. ores) and manufactures thereof	4.9	4.2	4.6	12.1	89.9	74.1	90.8	115.8	58.6	58.6	56.6	48.3	70.3
Machinery and appliances (incl. electrical material)	5.1	6.8	7.2	8.6	36.4	32.5	43.1	36.1	48.9	44.4	59.8	31.2	42.2
Transport equipment	3.0	3.7	1.1	6.6	19.7	13.8	28.9	19.8	64.9	49.6	47.4	31.2	70.2

7. VALUE OF IMPORTS BY PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES AND/OR COMMODITY GROUPS *(Cont'd)*

Monthly averages or calendar months — *Millions*

	1938[g]	1948	1950	1951	1952	1952			1953				
						II	III	IV	I	II	Apr	May	Jun
JAPAN (US$)													
Food	19.5[j]	26.7[j]	28.0	46.5	49.6	54.8	50.3	50.9	45.1	56.0	59.7	56.7	51.7
Crude materials (inedible) other than fuels	..	..	..	108.2	80.6	78.8	74.8	88.4	87.9	96.7	102.1	93.9	94.2
Mineral fuels, lubricants and related materials	..	..	..	13.9	19.5	23.1	21.0	15.9	25.6	22.8	22.7	25.7	20.1
Chemicals	4.2	3.9	4.8	3.1	3.7	3.8	3.6	4.2	4.9	6.2	5.5	6.2	6.8
Textiles	..	..	..	*0.9*	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.0	0.8	1.0	1.3
Manufactures of metals	..	..	..	..	0.4	0.3	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.7
Base metals	11.0	1.3	1.8	*0.2*	1.4	1.5	0.9	1.6	2.2	2.7	3.1	2.8	2.3
Machinery and transport equipment	3.5	0.1	0.6	5.1	7.6	7.4	6.4	10.1	9.0	12.1	11.1	12.4	12.9
MALAYA (M$)													
Food	11.9	48.2	57.8	82.0	84.2	89.1	80.5	86.9	77.1	71.2	70.5	66.6	75.1
Cotton yarn and manufactures	2.2	17.9	22.9	30.0	18.2	14.7	16.5	21.6	16.6	19.8	18.5	17.7	17.1
Machinery and vehicles	3.1	9.9	12.1	22.9	27.9	29.4	23.8	23.6	21.8	19.1	19.3	19.9	18.1
Base metals and manufactures thereof	1.6	4.7	7.1	15.0	14.8	14.1	12.7	16.7	15.0	15.3	17.1	15.1	13.7
Electrical goods and apparatus	0.5	2.4	3.5	5.2	5.6	5.6	5.0	4.8	6.8	6.0	6.8	6.1	5.2
PAKISTAN (Rs.)													
Cotton piecegoods	..	22.4‡	22.7	27.5	23.0	32.0	18.6	6.2	4.4	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.1
Cotton twist and yarn	..	9.4‡	12.5	18.0	16.3	25.3	11.1	4.5	1.0	2.3	1.4	2.7	2.7
Machinery and vehicles	..	8.6‡	13.3	17.2	21.6	25.5	20.4	14.7	15.9	8.5	9.8	9.1	6.5
PHILIPPINES (P.)													
Grains and preparations[b]	1.3[k]	7.0	4.2	7.5	6.1	2.3	11.4	5.1	2.8	3.3	2.9	3.5	3.7
Cotton and manufactures[c]	3.6	11.4	6.2	12.2	9.2	8.4	9.0	8.0	16.1	14.6	12.1	13.8	18.0
Rayon and other synthetic textiles[c]	0.4	8.8	2.7	2.3	3.9	4.2	2.7	3.7					
Mineral oils (petroleum products)[d]	0.9	5.7	5.8	6.0	6.6	7.2	6.7	3.2	3.3	5.6	3.9	1.7	11.0
Machinery and vehicles (incl. spare parts)	2.7	8.9	4.4	7.0	9.7	9.5	8.9	7.7	8.8	10.1	10.7	9.1	10.4
Iron and steel manufactures[e]	1.8	4.7	4.4	6.0	4.0	4.8	3.8	4.3	8.5	*6.4*	*6.2*	*5.1*	*7.8*
THAILAND[f] (Baht)													
Cotton fabrics and manufactures	2.1‡	25.0	32.3	27.5	..	35.9	49.9	..	..	..	..	..	..
Kerosene	0.3	3.0	2.6	2.6	..	4.2	3.4	..	..	..	..	..	..
Petrol and aviation spirit	0.3	4.2	5.1	7.1	..	11.5	11.2	..	..	..	..	..	..
Gunny bags	0.4‡	8.2	10.6	23.3	..	29.1	15.1	..	..	..	..	..	..

a. From 1948 onwards, textiles comprise cotton yarn and cotton piecegoods.

b. c, d, e. From 1953 onwards, changed respectively into cereals and preparations; textile yarn, fabrics and made up articles; minerals fuels, lubricants and related materials; and base metals and manufactures.

f. From 1950, Port of Bangkok only. In 1949 imports of cotton fabrics and manufactures, kerosene, petrol and aviation spirit, and gunny bags through Port of Bangkok accounted for 100%, 71%, 83% and 98% respectively, of total imports.

g. 1936 for Japan, 1939 for Indonesia.

h. Including vegetable and animal oils.

i. Including cutlery and hardware.

j. Including drink.

k. 1937.

EXTERNAL TRADE

8. VALUE OF EXPORTS BY PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES AND/OR COMMODITY GROUPS

Monthly averages or calendar months — *Millions*

	1938[b]	1948	1950	1951	1952	1952 II	1952 III	1952 IV	1953 I	1953 II	1953 Apr	1953 May	1953 Jun
BURMA (K.)													
Rice and products	18.2‡	48.7†	48.0†	60.3	82.6	85.7	76.0	100.3	24.9	120.6	138.7	137.3	85.7
Raw rubber	0.5‡	0.5†	0.7†	2.4	2.2	3.5	0.4	1.6	4.2	3.0	1.0	—	7.9
Teak	2.5‡	4.6†	1.0†	4.0	3.0	4.0	2.4	1.7	2.5	10.4	2.3	1.5	27.3
Metal and ores	4.8‡	1.8†	1.1†	3.5	5.0	3.9	6.4	3.8	1.4	3.9	1.1	8.7	1.8
CEYLON (Rs.)													
Tea	14.4	49.2	63.0	66.7	60.3	68.6	63.0	50.7	66.4	72.6	55.6	82.9	79.4
Coconut and products	2.3	12.8	21.0	26.9	19.5	19.8	18.9	17.7	18.8	17.9	18.0	18.4	17.4
Rubber	3.8	12.0	33.8	48.5	31.1	29.9	21.4	26.3	35.0	23.7	27.8	25.2	18.1
CHINA (Taiwan) (NT$)													
Rice	..	..	8.1	11.1	18.6	6.1	28.5	26.1	29.4	..	..	..	..
Fruits, fresh, canned or preserved	..	..	1.9	6.6	9.3	12.2	9.3	7.9	6.6	8.0	8.4	7.1	8.7
Tea	..	..	2.7	7.4	7.1	8.6	9.4	7.4	6.0	9.9	6.7	11.1	12.0
Sugar	..	..	36.8	48.2	72.0	139.6	34.6	36.6	37.9	80.9	44.4	114.7	83.7
Essential oils	..	..	2.1	4.0	3.7	6.6	3.6	2.0	5.1	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.3
INDIA (Rs.)													
Food and drink	30.6	58.9	88.2	119.6	109.1	74.0	123.4	120.2	111.2	73.4	72.1	74.5	73.4
Tea	19.6	45.5	58.4	78.7	66.7	32.9	79.1	81.5	73.9	40.5	38.7	39.9	42.8
Spices	0.7	4.0	17.6	24.9	19.0	15.5	17.1	14.4	21.3	14.6	18.4	14.1	11.3
Raw materials and articles mainly unmanufactured	59.5	90.3	88.5	127.7	116.4	124.4	123.7	116.9	117.8	100.3	113.0	100.2	87.1
Cotton raw and waste	19.9	18.6	14.9	21.4	20.3	24.5	33.2	17.8	21.1	21.4	23.6	18.7	21.9
Hides and skin raw or undressed	3.0	5.0	7.3	8.3	4.9	4.9	4.2	5.0	4.9	5.2	5.2	5.8	4.6
Vegetable oil other than aromatic	0.7	10.9	9.3	25.4	20.0	27.8	19.5	16.2	*16.7*	*11.4*	*15.7*	*8.8*	*10.1*
Articles wholly or mainly manufactured	40.2	192.3	243.8	347.6	244.6	240.9	239.3	204.1	181.7	195.2	182.9	200.5	202.1
Cotton yarns and manufactures	6.3	30.8	98.0	78.4	60.4	52.0	83.1	54.2	41.7	57.3	55.0	60.4	56.6
Jute yarns and manufactures	21.8	126.3	99.4	200.3	135.6	146.9	113.0	90.7	79.6	82.2	76.3	81.6	88.7
Hides and skins tanned or dressed and leather	4.4	9.9	19.0	27.8	14.6	9.8	13.8	19.2	25.0	21.6	17.7	23.9	23.2
INDOCHINA (Pr.)													
Food	13.4	52.2	56.2	110.0	77.1	134.5	40.3	23.1	67.5	..	98.4	40.3	..
Rice	8.2	37.7	25.1	73.9	60.7	121.2	26.4	8.4	63.5	..	86.8	36.4	..
Rubber	4.2	25.8	64.5	102.7	71.8	46.6	69.2	74.5	68.5	..	19.6	53.3	..
Mineral products	1.2	2.6	3.7	6.1	6.8	4.7	8.2	10.8	3.8	..	11.3	1.8	..
INDONESIA (Rp.)													
Tea	4.7	1.8	8.5	11.6	20.9	23.0	21.7	19.8	21.3	23.8	23.8	22.6	23.1
Copra	3.2	13.1	18.2	40.7	43.2	55.2	32.2	38.7	44.7	39.3	49.1	22.8	46.3
Rubber	13.0	21.3	107.0	206.9	344.7	335.4	314.5	343.5	266.5	284.0	301.6	317.9	234.2
Tin (and tin ore)	2.8	12.3	15.4	25.7	78.0	80.0	98.8	88.2	68.4	66.8	56.8	72.5	70.2
Petroleum and products	13.5	21.7	46.4	52.8	162.1	162.6	189.4	195.9	150.3	195.9	229.2	176.1	180.5
JAPAN (US$)													
Food	7.3	0.9	4.1	5.6	8.0	6.3	9.6	9.1	9.6	10.8	10.3	10.6	11.3
Crude materials, inedible, except fuels	..	..	..	7.0	7.0	6.6	8.0	8.3	4.8	5.5	5.3	5.9	5.2
Chemicals	3.6	0.9	1.3	3.0	3.3	4.3	3.7	2.4	5.6	6.5	6.6	7.1	5.9
Textiles	42.3	13.3	33.2	44.6	30.5	32.6	24.3	23.4	22.6	28.6	25.8	28.8	31.4
Manufactures of metals	..	..	..	4.0	2.9	3.0	2.8	3.6	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.4
Base metals	7.5	1.0	13.2	20.9	25.5	27.3	18.9	20.8	15.2	13.4	14.0	12.9	13.4
Machinery and transport equipment	6.2	1.3	5.9	9.0	9.7	11.0	8.4	10.8	15.1	18.3	12.2	18.4	24.3
MALAYA (M$)													
Food	4.7	11.2	17.1	28.4	27.9	25.7	30.0	27.0	19.5	17.9	15.6	17.8	20.4
Rubber	23.2	73.2	204.5	330.1	157.6	147.3	132.4	129.8	120.8	98.9	111.5	95.3	89.3
Tin (block, ingots, bars or slabs)	8.0	17.9	39.5	48.2	43.0	43.9	49.7	40.6	42.8	34.6	36.6	33.0	34.2
PAKISTAN (Rs.)													
Raw jute	..	29.4‡	46.2	59.6	58.0	40.3	21.5	68.7	64.5	34.1	30.1	32.0	40.3
Raw cotton	..	31.6‡	43.3	80.2	72.0	61.4	42.4	60.6	75.8	52.5	47.4	61.2	48.8
Raw wool	..	2.8‡	4.7	4.9	4.1	2.1	4.9	6.1	3.8	4.5	3.6	5.1	4.8
Hides and skins	..	3.1‡	2.8	4.5	2.8	1.8	1.9	2.9	4.1	3.2	4.2	2.0	3.3
Tea	..	3.1‡	2.0	4.8	2.7	0.9	3.2	4.2	1.2	1.7	0.9	1.7	2.6
PHILIPPINES (P.)													
Abaca (unmanufactured)	1.7	5.0	6.7	11.2	6.8	7.3	5.9	5.5	7.9	6.9	8.1	7.0	5.7
Coconut products	4.9	34.6	30.9	32.8	20.2	15.2	21.1	23.9	21.9	20.5	21.7	16.9	22.8
Sugar centrifugal	7.7	3.5	8.1	11.4	15.0	26.1	6.6	11.1	18.6	19.1	24.2	18.1	14.9
THAILAND (Baht)													
Rice[a]	8.1	78.2	145.2	156.3	147.5	141.5	162.4	122.2	221.7	311.5	288.7	342.4	303.5
Tin ore and concentrates	2.6	4.4	21.6	25.3	32.7	31.2	31.5	37.8	35.4	24.3	23.1	20.7	29.2
Rubber	3.9	34.9	71.4	107.6	84.7	70.6	76.3	67.2	78.3	46.0	50.7	45.9	41.5
Teak[a]	2.2	7.1	11.7	12.8	8.2	7.8	8.0	8.1	8.0	..	6.7	7.1	..

a. From 1950 Port of Bangkok only. In 1949, exports through Port of Bangkok accounted for nearly 100% of total exports of rice and teak.
b. 1936 for Japan.

XUM

9. QUANTITY OF EXPORTS OF SELECTED COMMODITIES

Monthly averages or calendar months — *Thousand metric tons*

	1938	1948	1950	1951	1952	1952			1953				
						II	III	IV	I	II	Apr	May	Jun
RICE													
Burma	253.3	102.2	99.2	107.1	110.3	116.5	99.9	117.2	28.0	*142.5*	162.1	*164.2*	101.1
China (Taiwan)	..	..	2.3	7.1	8.8	2.5	14.1	11.3	7.8	—	—	—	—
Indochina	77.8	13.4	8.7	25.5	19.0	38.1	7.2	2.2	17.9	..	19.9	7.2	..
Thailand	115.4	67.6	123.2	129.5	118.8	132.9	132.8	97.1	101.8	138.2	130.3	147.0	137.2
SUGAR													
China (Taiwan)	..	..	50.7	23.6	38.3	73.5	17.8	19.2	31.8	56.8	30.1	77.1	63.1
Indonesia	89.3	5.3	0.2	0.5	0.1	—	—	0.1	—	—	—	—	0.1
Philippines	68.2	18.1	36.6	47.2	66.1	113.7	27.2	47.2	80.2	76.0	97.6	71.0	59.2
TEA													
Ceylon	8.9	11.2	11.3	11.5	11.9	14.3	12.5	10.1	11.5	13.5	10.6	16.4	13.7
India	13.4[b]	13.2	15.2	17.0	15.5	8.7	18.9	18.5	17.9	9.0	8.6	9.0	9.4
Indonesia	6.0	0.7	2.4	3.3	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.7	2.4	2.5
Japan	1.4[c]	0.3	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.5	1.4	0.7	0.6	0.8	1.0	0.7	0.8
Pakistan	..	1.2	0.6	1.8	0.9	0.3	1.1	1.5	0.3	0.6	0.2	0.5	0.9
COPRA AND COCONUT OIL[a]													
Ceylon	8.7	9.2	7.5	10.3	11.1	13.2	12.3	9.2	9.9	7.4	8.9	7.6	5.7
Indonesia (copra)	25.8[d]	12.1[f]	14.1	23.1	17.1	21.9	12.3	14.5	12.4	10.3	12.8	6.0	12.1
Malaya	13.4	7.1	11.2	10.4	8.7	6.8	8.3	12.2	6.3	7.4	7.4	7.8	7.2
N. Borneo	0.4	0.3	1.4	0.9	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.5
Philippines	28.9[d]	35.3	41.0	45.0	40.3	34.6	45.8	39.7	27.0	25.8	24.9	21.5	31.2
PALM KERNELS AND OIL[a]													
Indonesia (palm oil)	14.2	3.3	8.2	8.1	10.1	8.4	13.0	12.9	9.8	6.7	8.4	6.1	5.8
Malaya	3.1	4.4	5.2	4.5	4.3	3.9	4.0	4.9	4.3	4.5	4.4	2.7	5.5
GROUND NUTS AND OIL[a]													
Hong Kong	1.2	0.4	1.8	0.7	0.8	0.5	0.8	1.7	1.1	0.4	0.7	0.3	0.2
India	22.0[b]	5.5	5.8	5.8	5.6	9.8	4.2	4.3	5.7	..	..	..	..
NATURAL RUBBER													
Brunei	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Burma	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.8	1.2	1.6	0.2	1.2	*0.8*	*0.3*	*0.6*	—	0.1
Ceylon	4.2	7.8	10.0	8.8	7.6	6.0	7.1	8.1	9.4	6.6	8.6	7.5	3.8
Indochina	5.0	3.5	4.4	4.4	5.1	3.6	5.7	6.7	5.8	3.4	2.0	4.0	4.2
Indonesia	25.5	36.6	58.6	67.2	61.8	54.7	58.8	74.7	52.4	59.9	59.0	64.2	56.4
Malaya (net export)	31.4	57.5	55.7	51.5	48.4	45.9	48.6	47.3	49.9	44.6	56.4	41.9	35.2
N. Borneo	0.8	1.7	2.0	1.8	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6
Sarawak	1.5	3.4	4.7	3.6	2.7	3.1	2.5	2.2	2.1	2.4	2.1	3.1	2.2
Thailand	3.5	8.1	9.5	9.2	8.3	7.3	8.6	8.2	10.0	6.4	7.5	6.0	5.8
COTTON, RAW													
India	38.6[b]	8.0	2.7	2.3	4.4	5.8	8.4	3.2	6.5	..	..	..	..
Pakistan	..	13.6	17.2	18.3	20.4	16.6	12.1	21.9	33.5	23.4	21.5	27.4	21.4
COTTON YARN (metric tons)													
Hong Kong	..	..	2,109	1,732	1,505	1,561	1,366	1,095	974	1,478	1,768	1,266	1,386
Japan	2,084[c]	458	891	1,025	1,117	1,012	948	312	334	579	392	667	671
Malaya	197	22	388	167	119	72	205	122	88	130	116	119	156
COTTON PIECE GOODS (Mn metres)													
Hong Kong	..	..	10.8	12.2	10.1[g]	10.0	11.5	11.8	5.4	15.5	14.3	18.3	14.1
India	14.6[b]	23.5	93.7	59.1	45.7	37.9	63.4	48.7	39.7	..	..	..	..
Japan (Mn sq. metres)	200.2[c]	28.2	76.9	75.3	52.0	58.1	40.1	39.5	51.8	57.1	54.0	55.4	61.5
Malaya	2.0	7.5	14.5[g]	14.5	9.6	8.4	8.7	10.9	7.8	14.7	10.3	17.2	16.8
JUTE													
Pakistan (raw)	..	16.1	50.0	56.0	67.7	37.4	35.1	115.1	104.9	62.4	48.8	58.1	80.1
India (bag and cloth)	78.9[e]	78.4	54.0	67.1	60.0	65.9	63.2	49.4	..	..	..	..	..
HEMP, RAW													
Philippines	11.8	6.2	7.9	10.3	9.1	9.4	8.9	8.1	11.6	10.8	11.2	13.8	7.4
TIN CONCENTRATES													
Burma	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	*0.1*	*0.1*	*0.1*	*0.1*	0.1
Indonesia	1.2	2.8	2.6	2.6	2.9	2.9	3.5	3.1	2.4	3.6	2.0	2.6	2.2
Thailand	1.1	0.5	0.9	0.7	*0.8*	0.7	*0.8*	*0.8*	*0.8*	*0.8*	*0.8*	*0.8*	0.6
TIN METAL													
Malaya	5.2	4.0	6.9	5.5	5.3	5.5	6.2	5.1	5.9	4.7	4.9	5.2	4.2
PETROLEUM AND PRODUCTS													
Indonesia	506	321	504	506	618	544	684	793	592	877	1,076	786	761
Malaya	84	82	165	163	204	207	223	229	200	215	245	179	220

a. Expressed in terms of oil equivalent; figures under column for 1938 relate to averages for the period 1934—1938.
b. Including territory now under Pakistan.
c. 1936.
d. 1935—1939.
e. Converted at 2.25 lbs. per bag and 0.50 lb. per yard of cloth.
f. Excluding exports to Singapore from Indonesia.
g. Unit for cotton piecegoods changed from meters to square meters beginning 1950 for Malaya and beginning 1952 for Hong Kong.

EXTERNAL TRADE

10. INDEX NUMBERS OF QUANTUM

1948 = 100

	1938	1950	1951	1952	1952 II	1952 III	1952 IV	1953 I	1953 II	1953 Apr	1953 May	1953 Jun
BURMA (Oct 1947—Sep 1948 = 100)												
Imports: General	163‡	95	87	140	131	246	133	142	*152*	178	*108*	*170*
Food, etc.	175‡	79	87	132	164	104	108	75	*98*	..	..	..
Textile & clothing	164‡	328	92	198	174	434	140	238	*236*	..	..	..
Coal & petroleum products	254‡	153	238	221	114	350	300	276	*179*	..	..	..
Minerals	132‡	88	168	94	87	80	97	95	*215*	..	..	..
Machinery & miscellaneous	106‡	63	73	99	91	137	64	60	*99*	..	..	..
Exports: General	263‡	42	96	98	113	84	93	78	*130*	139	*126*	*116*
Food, etc.	260‡	51	106	105	118	110	115	84	*149*	..	..	.
Timber	172‡	18	51	33	42	37	22	27	*32*	..	..	..
Cotton	170‡	61	80	131	140	24	109	207	*289*	..	..	..
Minerals	1,781‡	197	129	192	616	48	33	52	*25*	..	..	..
CEYLON												
Imports	89	121	135	138	140	126	149	135	159	168	144	166
Exports	80	110	112	117	130	121	101	116	117	95	129	126
INDIA[a] (Apr 1948—Mar 1949 = 100)												
Imports: All commodities	106‡	88	108	105	117	91	73	75	97	104	99	88
Food, drink & tobacco	..	73	146	137	185	115	47	72	111	129	117	88
Raw materials & semi-manufactures	..	123	112	124	144	86	98	73	117	121	106	125
Manufactures	..	79	92	84	77	84	74	78	83	86	89	73
Exports: All commodities	172‡	115	114	106	99	118	111	108	99	97	101	98
Food, drink & tobacco	..	109	122	117	86	137	130	118	79	72	84	81
Raw materials & semi-manufactures	..	103	114	101	111	105	102	110	90	101	87	81
Manufactures	..	122	111	104	97	117	106	102	109	104	113	110
INDOCHINA[b]												
Imports	85	151	189	166	163	165	157	163	..	..	..	..
Exports	259	88	132	126	125	115	124	134	..	..	..	..
JAPAN												
Imports	..	184	271	304	298	310	347	362	431	448	432	412
Exports	..	395	419	419	417	392	423	427	475	440	471	512
MALAYA												
Imports: All commodities	81	137	181	161	160	148	159	..	..	..	..	..
Food, drink & tobacco	109	120	156	144	150	130	142	..	..	..	..	..
Raw materials & semi-manufactures	83	147	172	118	109	113	127	..	..	..	..	..
Manufactures	66	85	199	192	191	176	184	..	..	..	..	..
Exports: All commodities	73	127	134	114	107	116	116	..	..	..	..	..
Food, drink & tobacco	162	122	172	146	144	141	136	..	..	..	..	..
Raw materials & semi-manufactures	60	115	124	97	90	96	99	..	..	..	..	..
Manufactures	95	173	161	160	160	180	171	..	..	..	..	..
PHILIPPINES												
Imports	..	77	86	79	76	88	65	71	86	72	75	111
Exports	157	146	163	180	214	172	156	163	174	194	161	168

a. Overland trade excluded. The index numbers for the calendar year 1948 are 93 and 100 in the case of imports and exports respectively.

b. With effect from first quarter 1952 figures relate to new series, base 1950 = 100.

11. INDEX NUMBERS OF UNIT VALUE AND TERMS OF TRADE

1948 = 100

	1938	1950	1951	1952	1952 II	1952 III	1952 IV	1953 I	1953 II	1953 Apr	1953 May	1953 Jun
Unit Value												
BURMA (Oct 1947—Sep 1948=100)												
Imports: General	23‡	114	84	73	73	69	63	67	*58*	63	*57*	*54*
Food, etc.	26‡	142	127	121	112	121	123	115	*117*	..	..	..
Textile & clothings	18‡	97	53	40	43	34	29	36	*25*	..	..	..
Coal & petroleum products	30‡	91	123	143	154	148	144	141	*137*	..	..	..
Minerals	24‡	77	114	107	107	113	103	93	*113*	..	..	..
Machinery & miscellaneous	42‡	123	116	123	138	123	114	106	*104*	..	..	..
Exports: General	17‡	104	131	159	156	157	175	182	*175*	196	*166*	*162*
Food, etc.	15‡	108	117	155	155	159	173	182	*177*	..	..	..
Timber	23‡	115	153	149	148	164	127	150	*135*	..	..	..
Cotton	21‡	111	199	156	165	121	138	116	*109*	..	..	..
Minerals	54‡	199	410	238	247	207	195	326	*267*	..	..	..
CEYLON												
Imports	23	98	116	135	137	137	128	122	122	122	124	119
Exports: All commodities	32	144	175	136	132	128	134	140	141	146	141	137
Tea	37	127	132	116	109	115	125	127	125	132	124	120
Rubber	56	222	367	255	268	223	208	226	226	230	228	219
All coconut products	14	144	169	105	99	93	106	122	131	128	131	134
Other export products	24	124	165	134	139	133	120	114	120	119	125	117
INDIA[a] (Apr 1948—Mar 1949=100)												
Imports: All commodities	28‡	104	128	129	135	127	124	119	118	115	120	121
Food, drink & tobacco	..	104	118	139	141	139	140	116	127	118	126	138
Raw materials & semi-manufactures	..	113	154	139	132	140	140	138	124	126	124	124
Manufactures	..	97	118	119	130	115	111	113	110	107	114	110
Exports: All commodities	24‡	110	160	131	132	119	116	110	112	111	111	113
Food, drink & tobacco	..	127	149	141	143	134	135	134	151	153	149	151
Raw materials & semi-manufactures	..	114	151	138	129	136	137	128	137	133	138	139
Manufactures	..	103	169	124	130	105	98	91	92	90	91	94
INDOCHINA[b]												
Imports	8	122	140	129	132	128	127	127	..	..	..	..
Exports	11	147	182	113	112	106	108	115	..	..	..	..
INDONESIA[c]												
Exports: All commodities	31	177	265	540	536	489	490	*482*	*443*	*451*	*443*	*434*
Estate produce	38	185	273	622	618	584	578	*577*	*524*	*528*	*525*	*520*
Peasant produce	27	171	219	487	483	427	432	*419*	*389*	*401*	*389*	*377*
Forest produce	12	99	148	356	312	333	386	*386*	*366*	*365*	*366*	*366*
JAPAN[d]												
Imports	..	77	110	98	103	94	91	88	83	83	84	84
Exports	..	80	125	117	121	114	110	100	105	101	110	105
MALAYA												
Imports: All commodities	36	115	144	129	130	126	126	..	..	..	..	..
Food, drink & tobacco	23	100	110	124	124	127	127	..	..	..	..	..
Raw materials & semi-manufactures	53	175	283	188	189	163	162	..	..	..	..	..
Manufactures	41	106	126	120	120	118	118	..	..	..	..	..
Exports: All commodities	43	173	258	188	190	175	169	..	..	..	..	..
Food, drink & tobacco	24	120	141	157	147	171	163	..	..	..	..	..
Raw materials & semi-manufactures	52	214	330	211	211	183	178	..	..	..	..	..
Manufactures	32	110	155	137	140	137	135	..	..	..	..	..
PAKISTAN[e] (Apr 1948—Mar 1949=100)												
Exports	..	89	119	88	103	72	67	64	60	64	60	58
PHILIPPINES												
Imports	..	79	100	94	94	89	95	102	96	100	96	92
Exports	25	77	84	66	62	61	74	78	77	75	78	78
Terms of Trade[f]												
BURMA	74‡	91	157	219	213	229	278	273	*301*	312	*289*	*300*
CEYLON	141	147	151	101	96	93	104	115	116	120	114	115
INDIA	86‡	106	125	102	98	93	93	93	94	96	93	94
INDOCHINA	138	120	130	87	85	83	85	91	..	..	..	..
JAPAN	..	104	113	120	117	120	121	113	126	121	132	125
MALAYA	120	151	179	146	143	138	134	..	..	..	..	..
PHILIPPINES	..	97	84	70	66	68	78	77	80	75	81	86

a. Overland trade excluded.

b. With effect from first quarter 1952 figures relate to new series, base 1950=100.

c. Weighted wholesale price index numbers of 18 export products at f.o.b. prices. Figures from April 1950 to February 1952 exclude the value of exchange certificates. The rise beginning February 1952 is principally due to the change in the conversion rate of the rupiah from 3.80 (excluding the value of exchange certificates) to 11.40 per U.S. dollar.

d. In terms of U.S. dollars.

e. Index of f.o.b. export prices.

f. Ratio of unit value index of exports to unit value index of imports multiplied by 100.

	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1952 II	1952 III	1952 IV	1953 I	1953 II	1953 Apr	1953 May	1953 Jun
CEYLON													
Index of wages (1948=100)													
Tea and rubber estate workers (minimum wages)	100	102	119	145	146	147	142	146	149	147	149	146	145
Unskilled workers in government employment	100	100	106	115	115	114	113	115	116	116	116	116	116
Index of real wages (1948=100)													
Tea and rubber estate workers (minimum wages)	100	100	112	130	132	135	132	131	135	131	135	131	128
Unskilled workers in government employment	100	100	102	106	106	106	107	106	108	107	108	107	105
INDIA													
Employment[a] (1,000)													
Factories under Factory Act	2,360	2,434	2,504	2,537	*1,822*	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Cotton mills	..	735	677	714	741	721	758	753	732	..	745	743	..
Coal mines	..	..	..	339	342	347	337	330	354	341	347	349	329
Central government establishments													
Office workers	..	..	..	193	204	202	207	209	211	213	213	213	214
Manual workers	..	..	..	392	404	403	408	408	406	404	405	405	403
Wages (Rs.)													
Monthly minimum wages in cotton mills (Bombay)	..	82.01	83.56	87.28	89.26	88.48	89.42	91.58	91.90	95.63	95.12	95.38	96.38
Weekly earnings of underground coal miners and loaders (Jharia)	2.41[d]	2.30[d]	2.40[d]	12.67	13.03	12.56	13.16	13.99	13.11	13.77	13.93	13.78	13.59
JAPAN													
Employment[b] (1,000)													
All industries	34,600	36,060	35,720	36,220	37,280	38,113	37,883	38,857	37,313	39,833	39,030	40,180	40,290
Agriculture, forestry and hunting	16,370	18,080	17,410	16,170	16,370	17,750	16,930	16,967	14,313	18,233	16,520	18,490	19,690
Industries other than agriculture, forestry and hunting	18,220	17,990	18,310	20,050	20,920	20,360	20,953	21,893	23,003	21,603	22,510	21,690	20,610
Mining	600	500	490	510	610	623	637	553	610	623	620	640	610
Manufacturing	..	..	..	6,290	6,530	6,480	6,407	6,673	7,163	6,640	7,080	6,670	6,170
Index of earnings (1948=100)													
Mining	100	143	166	212	263	259	298	236	295	281	282	269	292
Manufacturing	100	172	208	267	315	292	320	360	313	333	314	311	375
Index of real wages (1948=100)													
Mining	100	108	135	148	175	173	197	157	191	180	180	173	186
Manufacturing	100	130	170	187	210	195	212	240	202	212	200	199	238
Daily money wages of agricultural labour, male (Y.)	185	236	201	209	230	233	237	244	233	258	238	253	282
KOREA													
Index of wages—Pusan (1936=1)													
All industries	..	..	..	..	14,549	12,838	16,444	18,585	20,404	22,885	22,979	22,930	22,746
MALAYA (Federation)													
Employment[c] (1,000)	461	479	462[e]	499[e]	505[e]	505[e]	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
PHILIPPINES													
Index of employment (1949=100)													
Mining		100	120	143	150	152	147	150	146	142	143	142	142
Manufacturing		100	98	99	99	97	94	104	112	108	110	108	107
Index of wages (1948=100)													
Skilled	100	102	102	96	97	96	97	98	99	99	99	99	99
Unskilled	100	104	91	99	105	105	106	106	108	108	108	108	108
Real daily wage rates (P.)													
Skilled	2.05	2.19	2.25	1.98	2.10	2.09	2.08	2.12	2.22	2.29	2.27	2.30	2.30
Unskilled	1.28	1.41	1.27	1.29	1.43	1.43	1.43	1.44	1.53	1.57	1.56	1.58	1.58
VIET-NAM													
Daily wages—Saigon-Cholon (Pr.)													
Unskilled (male)	..	15.40§§	16.40[e]	20.50§§	22.80§§	..	..	22.80§§	..	25.50§§	..	..	25.50§§
Skilled	..	22.00§§	29.10[e]	36.30§§	41.20§§	..	..	41.20§§	..	47.80§§	..	..	47.80§§

a. Figures relate to daily averages.
b. End of month figures and their averages.
c. Comprises number employed by Government, Departments, estates, mines, factories and some miscellaneous establishments.
d. Average daily earnings in December.
e. End of June.

13. INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES

1948 = 100

	1949	1950	1951	1952	1952			1953				
					II	III	IV	I	II	Apr	May	Jun
BURMA												
All agricultural produce	123	115	133	119†	112	114	111	101	104	101	104	106
Cereals	96	98	105	100†	100	103	99	86	91	90	92	92
Non-food agricultural produce	161	196	205	167†	156	156	126	125	128	124	126	132
CHINA (Taipei, Jan-Jun 1950 = 100)												
General index	..	111	183	225	230	223	221	232	240	235	243	243
Food	..	104	140	173	172	175	178	197	216	205	222	220
Clothing	..	124	330	392	406	359	372	374	359	364	358	355
Fuel & light	..	118	156	190	193	191	193	203	214	205	217	219
Metals & electrical materials	..	115	218	270	278	269	256	260	261	266	258	258
Building materials	..	105	154	234	242	227	226	230	235	231	232	242
INDIA												
General index	104	109	120	105	102	105	104	104	108	105	108	110
Food articles	104	110	110	96	92	99	95	97	102	98	102	107
Industrial raw materials	108	117	141	105	99	104	101	102	109	104	111	112
Semi-manufactured articles	104	108	119	109	104	111	110	110	113	111	114	115
Manufactured goods	101	102	116	111	110	108	110	108	108	107	108	109
INDONESIA (Djakarta, imported goods)												
All articles	123	253	349	331	325	330	326	348	355	356	356	353
Provisions	90	180	295	370	370	364	366	391	410	399	416	415
Textile goods	194	351	319	260	234	273	270	300	291	294	290	289
Chemicals	88	221	373	341	334	345	344	367	396	397	396	397
Metals	95	220	381	388	389	384	385	400	400	402	399	397
JAPAN												
General index	163	193	268	273	272	273	269	274	274	274	274	275
Edible farm products	178	207	258	286	288	294	278	302	307	307	305	308
Other foodstuffs & tobacco products	164	159	175	180	180	179	181	179	174	174	174	175
Textiles	215	262	364	290	285	296	272	274	276	270	277	283
Chemicals	138	180	250	269	274	254	256	257	255	256	255	253
Metal & products	143	214	426	415	417	407	398	394	394	395	394	394
Building materials	141	165	243	266	255	270	284	291	306	306	306	306
Fuels	150	170	203	258	257	259	267	270	261	261	261	260
Producers' goods	155	200	308	317	316	313	312	313	314	314	315	315
Consumers' goods	172	185	225	227	226	230	223	232	232	232	231	233
KOREA (Pusan, 1947 = 100)												
General index	..	..	..	4,751	4,565	5,924	5,409	5,906	5,858	5,717	5,711	6,147
Fertilizers	..	..	..	7,987	7,526	8,449	8,449	8,449	8,449	8,449	8,449	8,449
Textile raw materials	..	..	..	2,478	2,368	2,641	2,986	3,682	3,311	3,219	3,279	3,435
Textiles	..	..	..	2,052	1,953	2,070	2,280	2,656	2,433	2,363	2,417	2,518
Building materials	..	..	..	3,923	3,483	3,836	4,917	6,049	7,499	7,597	7,589	7,312
PHILIPPINES (Manila, 1949 = 100)												
General index	100	97	109	100	98	98	101	101	98	98	97	98
Food	100	89	98	95	95	96	93	91	88	87	87	90
Crude materials	100	108	113	90	83	83	104	119	110	119	109	103
Mineral fuels	100	100	107	113	114	114	113	112	109	111	110	107
Chemicals	100	101	130	111	110	109	109	112	110	110	110	110
Manufactured goods	100	119	156	125	124	119	122	117	115	114	115	115
THAILAND (Bangkok)												
General index	93	95	103	109	107	108	111	104	103	102	104	103
VIET-NAM (Saigon-Cholon, 1949 = 100)												
General index	100	98	117	132	126	134	137	131	142	128	139	159
Rice & paddy	100	84	90	141	132	162	171	148	149	142	150	156
Other food products	100	101	112	127	124	129	130	136	149	136	142	169
Fuel & mineral products	100	113	117	118	118	119	118	116	129	116	129	143
Raw materials	100	141	201	152	148	139	144	147	159	135	155	188
Semi-finished products	100	95	117	125	124	121	126	117	128	114	122	147
Manufactured products	100	84	113	99	98	93	93	91	108	91	109	125

14. INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING

1948 = 100

	1949	1950	1951	1952	1952			1953				
					II	III	IV	I	II	Apr	May	Jun
BURMA (Rangoon)												
All items	135	114	112	107	104	119	101	101	105	101	109	105
Food	142	120	120	115	111	135	106	107	112	105	118	112
CAMBODIA (Phnom-Penh)												
All items	138	155	163	182	179	186	189	..	..	..	..	..
Food	133	150	154	181	175	187	193	..	..	..	..	..
CEYLON (Colombo)												
All items	99	105	109	108	107	107	109	107	109	108	109	110
Food	104	112	112	110	108	107	115	112	115	113	115	118
CHINA (Taipei, Jan-Jun 1950=100)												
All items	..	106	139	179	178	183	180	198	207	202	209	211
Food	..	100	146	139	135	150	142	154	180	167	183	189
HONG KONG (Retail price index)												
All items	112	117	128	128	128	132	127	125	127	127	125	128
Food	119	127	136	136	136	143	135	134	136	136	134	139
INDIA												
All-India (Interim index)												
All items	103	103	107	107	105	107	106	105	109	106	108	112
Bombay												
All items	101	103	109	111	113	111	114	116	120	118	120	122
Food	105	109	115	118	121	119	124	126	132	130	131	135
Delhi												
All items	100	100	108	108	111	109	108	103	105	104	106	106
Food	101	101	112	111	114	113	112	105	108	106	108	109
INDONESIA (Djakarta)												
Food	97	113	189	199	196	189	194	205	212	211	208	217
JAPAN (Urban, 1951=100)												
All items	92	86	100	105	104	106	105	108	110	110	109	110
Food	97	87	100	104	104	105	103	106	107	107	106	108
KOREA (Pusan, retail price index)												
All items	123	281	1,397	3,446	3,253	4,218	3,839	4,630	..	4,450	4,344	..
Food	131	302	1,519	4,489	4,281	5,794	4,881	5,593	..	5,463	5,334	..
LAOS (Vientiane, Dec 1948=100)												
All items	106	107*	113	140	132	150	154	155	171	156	170	188
Food	103	100*	103	138	127	152	158	159	183	162	181	205
MALAYA (Federation)												
All items												
Chinese	94	101	133	138	139	136	135	134	134	134	133	133
Indian	94	99	132	136	139	134	133	133	132	132	131	131
Malay (Jan 1949=100)	98	108	136	138	138	136	135	134	134	135	133	133
PAKISTAN (Apr 1948—Mar 1949=100)												
Karachi												
All items	96‡	95	99	101	99	101	104	111	112	114	111	110
Food	..	93	99	103	100	104	105	111	111	116	111	107
Narayanganj												
All items	103‡	98	102	110	106	114	115	103	106	102	107	109
Food	..	97	101	112	107	118	119	102	105	101	106	108
PHILIPPINES (Manila)												
All items	94	93	97	93	94	96	95	90	86	87	86	86
Food	93	86	94	90	89	91	90	84	80	81	80	79
THAILAND (Bangkok)												
All items	96	99	110	123	125	122	124	128	130	130	130	132
Food	95	97	106	119	120	117	120	123	125	124	124	126
VIET-NAM (Saigon, 1949=100)												
All items	100	102	116	142	137	147	151	157	169	152	169	187
Food	100	96	104	141	133	148	154	163	170	157	172	180

15. WHOLESALE PRICE QUOTATIONS OF SELECTED COMMODITIES

Monthly averages or calendar months

Price per metric ton

	Currency Unit	1948	1950	1951	1952	1952 II	1952 III	1952 IV	1953 I	1953 II	1953 Apr	1953 May	1953 Jun
RICE													
Burma	K.	..	254	266	285	292	291	291	278	268	..	..	..
China (Taiwan)	NT $	..	1,247	1,285	2,040	2,029	2,067	2,228	2,670	3,824	3,348	4,224	3,898
India	Rs.	436	432	432	443	443	449	449	449	449	449	449	449
Indonesia	Rp.	870	1,028	2,283	2,646*	2,580	2,440	..	..	2,308	2,400	2,275	2,250
Japan	000 Y.	24.9	41.0	48.2	46.1	48.2	49.2	51.3	51.3	51.3	51.3	51.3	51.3
Korea[a] (South)	000 H.	1.3*	3.1*	19.5*	70.4	70.8	100.4	74.0	76.3	77.6	73.1	73.9	85.7
Pakistan	Rs.	917	475	623	690	683	709	691	588	..	623	693	..
Thailand	Baht	..	959	985	1,107	1,050	1,185	1,119	976	1,074	1,047	1,078	1,096
Viet-Nam	Pr.	2,100	2,200	2,322	3,630	3,340	4,097	4,297	3,807	3,760	3,660	3,700	3,920
WHEAT													
India	Rs.	566	410	412	415	412	412	427	475	436	449	422	436
Korea[a] (South)	000 H.	0.7	2.5*	13.0*	36.7	37.8	37.5	43.3	44.8	40.4	43.0	38.6	37.0
Pakistan	Rs.	320	270	289*	305	310	310	310	310	..	..	..	..
SUGAR													
China (Taiwan)	NT $	..	1,382	3,462	2,806	2,653	3,254	2,820	2,956	2,719	2,593	2,760	2,804
India	Rs.	990	773	822	815	822	822	791	729	761	736	768	778
Indonesia	Rp.	2,290	2,906	2,945	2,864	2,890	2,903	2,917	2,830	2,840	2,830	2,840	2,850
Korea[a] (South)	000 H.	4.1	10.8*	65.4*	141.4	169.6	173.0	140.0	165.3	..	185.8	179.7	..
Pakistan	Rs.	925	1,000	1,067	1,206	1,206	1,206	1,208	1,206	..	1,206	1,206	..
Philippines	P.	291	269	257	253	247	266	259	247	252	248	261	245
Thailand	Baht	4,608*	5,330	6,015	5,192*	5,200[c]	5,225	4,625[c]	5,300[c]	5,435	5,305	5,225	5,775
PEPPER													
Cambodia	000 Pr.	34.8	137.3	147.6	115.6	103.0	114.1	115.4	115.1	129.3[d]	129.3	..	..
Malaya	000 M$	3.2	15.2	16.1	10.3	9.3	9.8	9.4	9.3	9.4	9.9	9.5	9.0
TEA													
China (Taiwan)	NT $	..	7,431	10,193	12,438	11,778	12,809	13,333	18,518	16,667	16,667	16,667	16,667
Ceylon	Rs.	3,594	4,453	4,056	3,660	3,329	3,924	3,858	4,145	3,836	3,902	3,814	3,792
India	Rs.	3,593*	3,946*	3,814*	2,315*	2,557[c]	2,072	1,675	2,623	3,858[d]	3,858	..	..
Indonesia	Rp.	2,200	5,521	6,557	7,146	6,590	7,383	7,093	8,400	9,403	9,280	9,160	9,770
U.K.	US $	1,190	961	1,014	988	999	1,001	939	941	1,056	1,016	1,043	1,082
U.S.A.	US $	1,290	1,146	1,096	917	941	858	816	838	963	904	970	1,014
TOBACCO													
China (Taiwan)	NT $	..	9,197	14,597	21,908	20,222	21,000	21,000	21,000	22,000	22,000	22,000	22,000
India	Rs.	..	2,700§	5,540*	2,405*	2,305[d]	2,528	2,484	2,258	2,293	2,137	2,171	2,573
Pakistan	Rs.	2,551	2,550*	4,131	2,703	2,318	1,891	2,221	2,367	..	2,278	2,400	..
Philippines	P.	816	1,551	905	532	585	451	446	446	470	446	465	500
VEGETABLE OIL													
China (Taiwan)	NT $	..	5,354	6,416	7,779	8,543	7,741	7,611	8,907	9,142	9,055	9,278	9,093
Ceylon	Rs.	1,006	1,390	1,598	963	823	849	1,158	1,260	1,281	1,351	1,290	1,203
India	Rs.	1,479	1,961	1,963	1,364	1,187	1,381	1,437	1,563	1,894	1,801	1,953	1,927
Indonesia	Rp.	1,221	1,695	2,290	2,201	2,260	2,027	2,070	3,240	2,049	2,208	1,974	1,965
Malaya	M$	1,142	1,090	1,299	792	725	681	889	1,018	998	1,056	1,003	934
Pakistan	Rs.	2,649	3,267	3,003	2,277	2,262	2,295	2,038	1,992	..	2,077	2,197	..
Philippines	P.	980	676	700	460	400	400	600	740	710	800	710	630
COPRA													
Ceylon	Rs.	531	826	963	615	544	548	740	792	797	827	798	766
India	Rs.	986	1,486	1,561	1,086	948	1,103	1,169	1,208	1,202	1,207	1,201	1,197
Indonesia	Rp.	390	1,194	1,400	1,000	867	933	1,100	1,267	1,633	1,700	1,700	1,500
Malaya	M$	635	650	726	481	429	419	567	667	627	684	628	568
Philippines	P.	515	360	362	246	205	216	328	414	352	405	343	308
Thailand	Baht	2,730	3,292	3,795	2,879	2,745	2,708	3,070	3,470	3,418	3,608	3,542	3,104
U.S.A.	US $	308	223	229	168	144	147	216	265	224	248	226	198
COTTON, RAW													
China (Taiwan)	NT $	..	9,639	28,380	36,111	35,926	32,284	36,605	36,667	35,926	36,667	36,111	35,000
India	Rs.	1,828*	1,086*	1,788	1,482	1,331	1,504	1,223	1,405	1,548	1,568	1,549	1,526
Korea[a] (South)	000 H.	6.3	16.7*	34.2*	61.3	57.5	62.1	73.5	95.7	106.4	105.0	105.8	108.3
Pakistan	Rs.	1,879	2,218*	3,023	2,318	2,331	2,280	1,795	1,494	..	1,501	1,533	..
U.K.	US $	785	917	1,175	977	1,034	940	833	778	787	785	787	787
JUTE, RAW													
India	Rs.	1,078	1,107	1,826	1,013	965	762	773	710	787	641	838	882
Pakistan	Rs.	958	675	1,140	612*	..	410[c]	414	452	..	449	553	..
U.K.	US $	386	315	485	305	345	220	226	233	266	234	287	279
U.S.A.	US $	408	342	509	325	354	240	244	259	275	246	271	309
HEMP, RAW													
Philippines	P.	837	841	990	612	608	497	590	695	637	676	622	612

15. WHOLESALE PRICE QUOTATIONS OF SELECTED COMMODITIES *(Cont'd)*

Monthly averages or calendar months

Price per metric ton

	Currency Unit	1948	1950	1951	1952	1952			1953				
						II	III	IV	I	II	Apr	May	Jun
COIR													
Ceylon	Rs.	148	268	332	233	280	175	189	189	205	212	210	193
India	Rs.	..	1,624§	1,637	955	913	846	826	787	795	804	784	798
WOOL, RAW													
India	Rs.	1,967	3,992	4,440	2,910	2,394	3,051	3,691	3,411	3,431	3,389	3,382	3,523
Pakistan	Rs.	3,137‡	7,125[b]	4,758*	3,475*	2,848	3,651	3,925[c]	4,391	..	4,248	4,297	..
SILK, RAW													
India	000 Rs.	53	84	66	39	32	41	40	47	54	50	52	60
Japan	000 Y.	1,556	2,579	3,761	3,788	3,585	3,969	4,033	4,027	3,933	3,797	3,975	4,027
Korea[a] (South)	000 H.	71	157*	613*	1,384	1,347	1,532	1,724	2,222	2,136	2,142	2,133	2,133
HIDES													
China (Taiwan)	NT$	..	5,274	6,762	11,302	12,056	13,333	12,154	11,266	9,374	9,389	9,259	9,472
India	Rs.	2,158	2,002	3,729	2,251	1,929	2,260	2,260	2,088	1,874	1,874	1,874	1,874
Pakistan	Rs.	1,860	2,543	2,976	1,896*	1,716	1,732	1,732[c]	1,842	..	1,653	1,653	..
Thailand	Baht	8,219	12,815	16,156	5,801	5,556	4,567	4,472	5,347	5,778	5,292	5,750	6,292
U.S.A.	US $	606	564	692	326	289	360	364	284	324	304	337	331
RUBBER, NATURAL													
Ceylon	Rs.	1,367	3,417	4,740	3,042	3,351	2,674	2,712	2,976	3,005	2,998	3,020	2,998
Indonesia	Rp.	1,020[b]	5,958	9,300	6,682	6,570	6,027	6,337	5,790	5,187	5,160	5,360	5,040
Malaya	M$	929	2,385	3,730	2,118	2,106	1,842	1,829	1,734	1,526	1,514	1,578	1,488
Thailand	Baht	6,531	12,155	19,351	10,317	9,990	8,067	7,688	7,453	6,728	6,245	7,160	6,780
Viet-Nam	Pr.	7,150	15,230	24,100	14,620	14,100	12,200	13,000	13,833	14,877	12,000	14,630	18,000
U.K.	£	119	306	467	260	259	228	222	210	189	187	194	185
U.S.A.	US $	485	906	1,302	850	992	642	644	614	548	543	562	539
COAL													
China (Taiwan)	NT $	..	137	214	361	380	333	333	333	333	333	333	333
India	Rs.	16	16	15	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
Korea[a] (South)	H.	36	40*	660*	959	850	917	1,220	1,373	1,387	1,260	1,260	1,640
Viet-Nam	Pr.	347	583	587	681	663	714	714	714	714	714	714	714
TIN													
Malaya	000 M$	4.46	6.07	8.71	7.94	7.95	7.97	7.98	7.81	6.08	6.21	6.19	5.83
Thailand	Baht	29,440	31,480	52,040	44,330	40,000	41,670	47,330	47,330	42,830	45,500	42,000	41,000
U.K.	£	543	733	1,060	949	951	944	942	942	718	749	729	676
U.S.A.	US $	2,188	2,107	2,829	2,675	2,679	2,675	2,674	2,677	2,142	2,229	2,149	2,050
PIG IRON													
India	Rs.	111	105	116	136	131	141	141	141	141	141	141	141
Japan	Y.	4,354	13,134*	27,490	29,547	30,000	29,467	28,200	26,667	26,311	26,300	26,300	26,333
Korea[a] (South)	000 H.	0.1	0.5*	2.4*	3.4	3.0	3.1	4.5	6.7	..	7.5	9.0	..
CEMENT													
China (Taiwan)	NT $	..	273	319	501	545	407	393	432	465	458	444	492
India	Rs.	84	81	89	..	92	92	89	84	82	83	82	82
Japan	Y.	2,794	5,006	7,760	8,800	8,800	8,800	8,800	8,800	8,800	8,800	8,800	8,800
Korea[a] (South)	H.	218	465*	2,720*	4,388	4,094	4,460	5,800	7,294	8,826	10,000	9,140	7,340
Pakistan	Rs.	..	94	94	94*	94	94	94[c]	94	..	94	94	..
Viet-Nam	Pr.	746	986	1,035	1,104	1,100	1,110	1,110	1,110	1,130	1,117	1,136	1,136
COTTON YARN													
China (Taiwan)	NT $	..	14,327	26,777	23,148	23,148	23,148	23,148	23,702	23,997	24,343	23,780	23,869
India	Rs.	3,790	3,613	4,176*	4,041	4,054	3,880	3,741	3,810	3,845	3,838	3,856	3,838
Japan	000 Y.	87	373	662	514	521	549	430	430	473	419	457	542
Viet-Nam	000 Pr.	50*	51	65	52	54	47	49	45	52	44	53	60
COTTON FABRICS													
India	Rs.	4,123	3,641	4,233	4,145	4,167	4,056	4,034	4,034	4,034	4,034	4,034	4,034
Japan (Metre)	Y.	..	79	106	69	66	74	61	65	66	66	66	66
JUTE BAGS (per hundred)													
India	Rs.	133	156	229	139	133	106	104	93	96	87	97	103
Pakistan	Rs.	151	196	215	156	160	116	121	85[c]	..	142	152	..
JUTE HESSIAN													
India	Rs.	1,811	1,904	2,741	1,878*	1,781	1,645[c]	1,702	1,486	1,485	1,364	1,490	1,601
U.K.	US $	658	559	909	642	696	516	493	512	533	512	543	543
U.S.A.	US $	660	776	1,055	558	520	463	474	433	433	414	430	453

GENERAL NOTE: For details regarding specification and market centre see Revised Explanatory Notes to table 13 on page 100, Vol. III, No. 3.

a. As from the second quarter of 1951, figures relate to Pusan.

b. Dec.

c. Average of two months.

d. Apr.

e. Mar.

16. CURRENCY AND BANKING

	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1952 II	1952 III	1952 IV	1953 I	1953 II	1953 Apr	1953 May	1953 Jun
BURMA (Mn. K.)													
Money supply	505	601	552	607	641	721	646	641	849	936	888	895	936
Currency: net active	335	403	358	398	413	468	418	413	609	586	618	601	586
Deposit money	169	198	194	210	228	253	228	228	240	351	271	294	351
Loans, advances and bills discounted (commercial banks)	68	58	130	159	151	156	135	151	187	130	158	149	130
Bank clearings	151	128	138	151	181	186	198	167	231	247	210	242	291
Gold and foreign assets of the Union Bank of Burma[a]	358	505	556	748	940	799	870	920	1,012	1,129	1,041	1,076	1,129
Rates of interest (% per annum)													
Call money rate	..	..	..	1.04	1.64	1.83	1.50	1.25	2.00	1.08	1.25	1.00	1.00
Yield of long term government bonds	..	..	3.00*	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
Internal government debt[b] held by													
Union Bank of Burma	16	18	20	22	16	22	16	16	18	6	12	6	6
Commercial banks	8	19	27	31	25	26	34	25	31	52	40	48	52
Government deposits and cash in hand													
Central government deposits with the Union Bank of Burma	2	—	57	77	50	109	92	50	77	81	47	31	81
Cash in Government Treasury	15	7	5	5	3	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4
CAMBODIA, LAOS AND VIET-NAM (1,000 Mn Pr.)													
Money supply	..	..	..	..	10.92	..	10.72	10.92	11.15	..	11.19	11.28	..
Currency: in circulation	..	..	..	..	7.67	..	7.49	7.67	8.20	..	8.13	8.12	..
Deposit money (commercial banks only)[c]	..	..	..	..	3.25	..	3.23	3.25	2.94	..	3.06	3.16	..
Loans and advances (commercial banks)	..	..	..	..	1.01	..	1.10	1.01	1.22	..	1.33	1.44	..
Foreign assets of l'Institut d'emission	..	..	..	..	0.68	..	0.51	0.68	0.88	..	0.74	1.02	..
Rate of interest (% per annum)													
Treasury bill rate	..	..	..	..	2	..	2	2	2	..	2	2	..
States treasury bills outstanding	..	..	..	..	0.30	..	0.45	0.30	0.65	..	0.73	0.93	..
CEYLON (Mn Pr.)													
Money supply	607	649	911	1,006	894	923	910	8.94	899	878	880	875	878
Currency: net active	241	244	326	377	357	363	362	357	363	362	356	361	362
Deposit money	366	406	585	629	538	560	548	538	536	516	524	514	516
Loans, advances and bills discounted (commercial banks)	..	132	182	257	241	241	232	241	231	244	229	235	244
Bank clearings	391	422	549	691	688	680	700	685	673	645	634	641	659
Gold and foreign assets													
Central Bank of Ceylon	..	..	..	668	401	522	464	401	361	294	342	309	294
Commercial banks	..	102	180	137	50	83	68	50	57	48	57	52	48
Rates of interest (% per annum)													
Call money rate	..	..	..	0.50*	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50
Treasury bill rate[e]	..	..	..	0.48*	0.72	0.64	0.91	0.92	0.96	1.74	1.35	1.71	2.16
Yield of long term government bonds[f]	..	..	..	2.81	2.93	2.96	2.96	2.96	3.04	3.60	3.45	3.50	3.84
Internal government debt held by													
Central Bank of Ceylon	..	..	19	17	161	76	130	161	199	255	210	245	255
Commercial banks	184	204	271	235	302	270	294	302	291	284	291	281	284
Government deposits and cash in hand													
Government deposits with the Bank of Ceylon	..	..	12	31	6	6	6	6	—	—	—	—	—
Currency held by government	4	4	6	6	5	5	4	5	3	4	4	4	4
CHINA (Taiwan) (Mn NT$)													
Money supply	..	304	690	790	1,129	892	921	1,129	1,021	1,127	1,030	1,189	1,127
Currency outstanding	..	198	288	473	705	573	563	705	662	724	668	706	724
Deposit money	..	106	402	317	424	319	358	424	360	403	361	483	403
Loans, advances and bills discounted (banks other than the Bank of Taiwan)[g]	..	43	84	138	342	261	354	342	497	476	525	437	476
Bank clearings	..	83*	138	418	862	809	850	1,082	1,462	2,087	2,146	2,115	1,999
Rate of interest (% per annum)													
Call money rate	..	20.99	16.42	10.80	10.80	10.80	10.80	10.80	10.80	10.80	10.80	10.80	10.80
Government deposits held by the Bank of Taiwan	..	76	349	626	776	717	720	776	896	930	979	968	930

	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1952 II	1952 III	1952 IV	1953 I	1953 II	1953 Apr	1953 May	1953 Jun
HONG KONG (Mn HK$)													
Money supply													
Currency outstanding (notes only)	783	802	808	800	802	799	798	802	801	801	800	800	801
Bank clearings	689	917	1,199	1,506	1,195	989	1,276	1,244	1,103	1,006	1,093	1,000	1,006
INDIA (1,000 Mn Rs.)													
Money supply	20.28	18.73	19.36	18.76	17.78	18.50	17.90	17.78	18.47	18.36	18.73	18.65	18.36
Currency: net active	12.92	12.07	12.67	12.35	11.86	12.30	11.86	11.86	12.33	12.32	12.60	12.62	12.82
Deposit money	7.36	6.67	6.68	6.41	5.92	6.20	6.04	5.92	6.14	6.04	6.14	6.03	6.04
Advances and bills discounted[h] (scheduled banks)	4.42	4.11	4.45	5.54	4.85	5.40	4.88	4.85	5.29	5.10	5.25	5.31	5.10
Bank clearings	5.55	5.27	5.25	6.56	5.71	5.58	5.45	5.24	5.64	5.50	5.86	5.43	5.35
Gold and foreign assets of the Reserve Bank of India	10.67	8.66	8.74	8.21	7.46	7.23	7.30	7.46	7.64	7.53	7.56	7.51	7.53
Rates of interest (% per annum)													
Call money	0.50	0.66	0.58	1.01	2.02	2.25	1.71	1.38	2.88	2.62	2.62	2.75	2.50
Yield of long term government bonds[i]	..	3.06	3.11	3.39	3.69	3.64	3.74	3.64	3.62	3.64	3.65	3.64	3.64
Internal government debt held by													
Reserve Bank of India[j]	4.38	5.06	5.40	5.77	5.53	5.40	5.53	5.53	5.49	5.44	5.40	5.41	5.44
Scheduled banks	4.26	3.40	3.57	3.06	3.23	3.00	3.08	3.23	3.03	3.14	3.01	3.00	3.14
Non-scheduled banks	0.11	0.10	0.10	0.09	0.21	0.16	0.16	0.21	0.18	0.18	0.20	0.20	0.18
Government deposits held by the Reserve Bank of India	2.14	1.52	1.64	2.10	1.75	1.18	1.42	1.75	1.36	1.30	1.04	1.03	1.30
INDONESIA (Mn Rp.)													
Money supply	3,008	3,596	4,392	5,132	6,719	6,163	5,787	6,719	7,276	7,204	7,016	7,047	7,204
Currency: in circulation	1,643	1,911	2,582	3,328	4,349	3,918	3,819	4,349	4,664	5,021	4,695	4,857	5,021
Deposit money	1,365	1,686	1,810	1,804	2,370	2,245	1,968	2,370	2,612	2,184	2,321	2,191	2,184
Loans, advances and bills discounted (all banks)[k]	266	303	682	2,152	2,445	1,968	2,386	2,445	..	..	..	..	..
Gold and foreign assets of the Java Bank[l]	547	559	1,349	1,939	1,790	3,479	2,370	1,790	1,690	3,292	1,822	3,561	3,292
Advances to government by the Java Bank	..	1,257	2,761	1,317	4,555	2,849	3,291	4,555	5,618	3,678	5,264	5,292	3,678
Government deposits with the Java Bank	..	..	..	..	496	496	496	496	496	495	496	496	495
JAPAN (1000 Mn Y.)													
Money supply	696	809	966	1,266	1,636	1,265	1,389	1,636	1,545	1,475	1,473	1,476	1,475
Currency: in circulation	338	336	409	492	554	431	426	554	477	484	485	474	484
Deposit money	357	473	557	774	1,082	834	963	1,082	1,068	991	988	1,002	991
Loans, advances and bills discounted (all banks other than the Bank of Japan)	385	684	997	1,526	2,022	1,690	1,851	2,022	2,141	2,257	2,160	2,206	2,257
Bank clearings	236	549	808	1,232	1,624	1,474	1,661	2,096	2,093	1,913	1,999	1,812	1,928
Rates of interest (% per annum)													
Call money rate (Tokyo)	..	6.08	6.40	7.12	8.05	7.97	8.09	8.15	8.15	8.15	8.21	8.21	8.03
Yield of long term government bonds[m]	..	..	..	5.50	5.50	5.50	5.50	5.50	5.50	5.50	—	—	5.50
Internal Government debt held by													
Bank of Japan[n]	331	289	200	166	324	177	144	324	232	184	238	218	184
All other banks	80	65	37	38	39	35	35	39	36	36	36	36	36
Government deposits with the Bank of Japan	14	12	48	32	92	57	84	92	130	116	79	106	116
KOREA (South) (1000 Mn H.)													
Money supply	0.53	0.94	2.52	6.49	12.13	8.03	9.48	12.13	11.84	15.10	12.22	13.38	15.10
Currency: net active	0.41	0.71	2.23	5.39	9.74	6.32	7.40	9.74	9.98	12.28	10.00	10.87	12.28
Deposit money	0.12	0.23	0.29	1.10	2.39	1.71	2.08	2.39	1.86	2.82	2.22	2.50	2.82
Loans, advances and bills discounted (all banks other than the Bank of Korea)	0.43	0.87	0.46[u]	1.93	5.78	3.01	4.43	5.78	7.20	9.95	7.94	8.85	9.95
Bank clearings	0.21	0.40	0.41	2.40	13.69	10.04	15.34	23.08	15.42	*18.32*	15.37	..	21.27
Gold and foreign assets													
Bank of Korea	..	..	0.40	2.34	4.79	1.91	3.38	4.79	9.46	6.23	8.51	7.15	6.23
Government[p]	..	..	0.58	1.79	2.64	0.35	1.19	2.64	3.32	1.28	2.47	1.44	1.28
Internal government debt held by													
Bank of Korea[n]	..	..	..	3.00	2.13	2.50	1.58	2.13	18.39	57.67	41.26	40.11	57.67
All other banks	..	..	..	0.07	0.16	0.10	0.13	0.16	3.40	3.59	3.39	3.29	3.59
Treasury deposits with the Bank of Korea	0.11	..	0.85	1.86	6.01	2.65	5.35	6.01	70.20	114.08	100.78	81.12	104.08

	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1952 II	1952 III	1952 IV	1953 I	1953 II	1953 Apr	1953 May	1953 Jun
MALAYA (Mn M$)													
Money supply	899	887	1,402	1,731	1,620	1,555	1,564	1,620	1,583	1,500	—	—	1,500
Currency notes: net active[q]	302	311	515	654	630	618	617	630	622	613	—	—	613
Deposit money	598	576	887	1,077	989	946	946	989	961	887	934	897	887
Loans and advances of commercial banks	309	386	551	633	484	473	467	484	489	454	489	487	454
Debits to current deposit accounts	..	..	..	4,167	3,396	3,248	3,365	3,257	3,204	2,916	2,935	2,926	2,888
Federation treasury bills held by banks	30	7	23	26	14	7	4	14	14	12	14	12	12
PAKISTAN (Mn Rs.)													
Money supply	2,698	2,783	2,964	3,755	3,289	3,388	3,247	3,289	3,429	..	3,514	*3,488*	..
Currency: in circulation	1,708	1,740	1,992	2,467	2,151	2,238	2,037	2,151	2,258	..	2,269	*2,240*	..
Deposit money	990	1,043	973	1,288	1,138	1,150	1,210	1,138	1,171	..	1,245	1,248	..
Loans, advances and bills discounted (scheduled banks)	410	445	770	919	792	780	757	792	752	..	719	662	..
Bank clearings[r]	326*	334	460	551	543	502	510	512	*555*	*491*	*508*	*511*	*454*
Gold and foreign assets of the State Bank of Pakistan[s]	1,629	1,424	1,188	1,627	933	1,325	992	933	928	..	918	931	..
Rates of interest (% per annum)													
Call money rate	..	0.45	0.99	0.94	2.09	1.96	1.96	2.46	2.33	0.75	1.70	0.35	0.25
Yield of long-term government bonds[t]	..	..	2.96*	2.98	2.98	2.98	2.97	2.99	3.00	..	2.99	2.99	..
Internal government debt held by the State Bank of Pakistan	176	370	857	864	1,214	865	903	1,214	1,144	..	1,183	1,191	..
Government deposits with the State Bank of Pakistan	923	481	661	582	377	442	194	377	332	..	238	214	..
PHILIPPINES (Mn P.)													
Money supply	1,145	978	1,148	1,053	1,082	1,022	1,030	1,082	1,093	1,035	1,094	1,061	1,035
Currency: net active	571	565	669	639	624	582	582	624	626	593	630	614	593
Deposit money	574	414	479	414	465	440	448	465	467	442	464	447	442
Loans, advances and bills discounted (all banks other than the Central Bank)	511	564	533	685	694	674	689	694	725	..	..	..	..
Bank clearings	381	443	462	457	480	497	470	461	509	519	506	522	527
Debits to checking accounts	772	723	674	733	686	724	640	647	746	..	759	741	..
Gold and foreign assets													
Central Bank of the Philippines	800	461	570	492	454	491	476	454	477	467	479	483	467
Other banks	126	106	148	145	162	154	141	162	160	135	158	153	135
Internal government debt held by													
Central Bank of the Philippines	..	92	158	242	235	235	232	235	235	232	234	234	232
Other banks	13	18	41	35	56	31	31	56	58	58	58	58	58
Government deposits and cash in hand													
Deposits with Central Bank	..	2	19	153	98	169	157	98	137	130	129	138	130
Deposits with Philippine National Bank	..	32	81	46	59	46	61	59	51	..	..	..	..
Cash in Treasury vaults	..	7	4	6	7	4	5	7	5	4	4	5	4
THAILAND (Mn Baht)													
Money supply	2,881	3,107	3,967	4,907	4,932	4,692	4,856	4,932	..	5,274	..	..	5,274
Currency: net active	2,205	2,364	3,043	3,756	3,678	3,603	3,637	3,678	..	3,783	..	..	3,783
Deposit money	676	743	924	1,151	1,254	1,089	1,219	1,254	..	1,491	..	..	1,491
Loans, advances and bills discounted (commercial banks)	414	547	592	741	1,201	812	1,281	1,201	1,506	..	1,499	1,537	..
Bank clearings	774	1,112	1,544	2,057	2,270	2,164	2,005	2,397	2,561	2,328	2,336	2,094	2,553
Debits to sight deposit accounts	..	1,447§	1,973	2,786	2,923	2,823	2,899	3,153	3,365	..	3,033	3,162	..
Gold and foreign assets of the Bank of Thailand	2,180	2,758	3,641	4,511	4,434	4,460	4,445	4,434	4,221	4,150	4,285	4,174	4,150
Rates of interest (% per annum)													
Treasury bill rate	1.32	2.02	2.02	2.10	2.17	2.17	2.16	2.19	2.22	2.25	2.26	2.24	2.26
Internal government debt held by													
Bank of Thailand	18	142	155	166	261	166	161	261	251	251	251	251	251
Commercial banks	150	119	116	118	102	109	108	102	76	..	59	71	..
Government deposits with Bank of Thailand	392	394	317	423	396	353	328	396	368	540	431	423	540

GENERAL NOTES: All figures, other than bank clearings and rates of interest, relate to the end-of-month, end-of-quarter and end-of-year respectively: bank clearings relate to monthly totals and their averages. *Net active currency:* Total currency outstanding less holdings in all banks including the central bank and in government treasuries. *Currency in circulation:* Total currency outstanding less holdings in all banks including the central bank. *Deposit money:* Deposits in all banks (including central bank) withdrawable by cheques but excluding inter-bank liabilities and central government deposits. *Bills discounted:* Excluding treasury bills. *Bank clearings:* Total value of cheques and other collection items cleared through clearing houses. *Gold and foreign assets:* Gross holdings of gold, foreign exchange and other liquid foreign investments. *Rates of interest:* All rates are those prevailing in the capital city of each country except in India where rates in Bombay have been taken. *Call money rate:* Relates to inter-bank rate on money at call.

a. Beginning July 1952 includes foreign assets of the Burma Currency Board.
b. Treasury bills and 3 year and 5 year government bonds.
c. Includes in addition to deposits by business concerns and individuals, the deposits of Indochinese branches of the French National Treasury, and of the Autonomous Amortization Fund.
d. Treasury bills of Cambodia and Viet-Nam only.
e. Weighted average of tender rates on bills issued within the period.
f. Yield of 3 per cent national development loan 1965-70 calculated to earliest redemption date.
g. Includes the Land Bank, Cooperative Treasury and three commercial banks.
h. Includes bills purchased.
i. Yield of 3 per cent paper (running yield) to earliest redemption date.
j. Includes loans & advances to government.
k. The Java Bank, Bank Negara Indonesia, Bank Industri Negara and seven commercial banks.
l. Devaluation took effect on 4 Feb 1952 but foreign assets and gold holdings were not revalued until 6 Feb 1953 and 13 May 1953 respectively.
m. Weighted yield (simple rate of interest) to latest redemption date of medium dated government bonds issued during the period stated. Figure for 1951 relates to average of 4 months Sep—Dec.
n. Includes advances to government.
p. Figures shown are on a net basis.
q. Figures include British Borneo.
r. Figures relate in 1948 and 1949 to 3 clearing houses in principal towns, from Jan 1950—Jan 1952 to clearing houses in 4 towns and from Feb 1952 in 5 towns.
s. Including outstanding assets receivable from the Reserve Bank of India, under the partition agreements, but excluding foreign assets of Banking Department.
t. Yield to maturity of 3 per cent bonds 1968.
u. May.

TRADE AGREEMENTS NEGOTIATED AND/OR FINALIZED DURING THE THIRD QUARTER OF 1953.

I. ECAFE INTRA-REGIONAL TRADE AGREEMENTS

Contracting parties	Period valid	Value of trade and types of commodities	Methods of trade and payment	Remarks
Burma—India	1951—1955	In line with the 5-year agreement signed in 1951, no ceiling on the value of trade was fixed. Ten additional items not previuosly included are now available for export to Burma: 1,000 sewing machines; 1,000 diesel engines; 2,000 centrifugal pumps; paints and varnish valued at Rs. 1.5 million; 500 tons of brass sheets and rings; 500 tons of copper sheets and rings; 500 tons of aluminium sheets; 150,000 huricane lanterns; 25,000 tons of cement and Rs. 1 million worth of machine tools. Burma's principal exports to India are rice and timber.	Issuance of licences. Payment in pound sterling.	The exchange of letters supplementing the 1951 agreement was initialed in New Delhi on 3 July 1953. (see Bulletin, Vol. II, No. 3; Third Quarter 1951). In 1951/52 trade between Burma and India was valued at Rs. 428.9 million, and in 1952/53 it rose to Rs. 484.6 million.
Ceylon—Burma	1954—1957	Ceylon undertakes to buy from Burma 200,000 tons of rice in the next four years at annual prices of £50, £48, £46 and £44 per ton respectively. Burma undertakes to sell to Ceylon, if requested, every year during this period of four years a quantity in excess of 200,000 tons up to a maximum of 600,000 tons, if notice be given to Burma before 15 November of the preceding year.	Payment is to be made in pound sterling.	Approved by Ceylon on 2 October 1953.
Ceylon—China (Mainland)	1 Jan. 1954—31 Dec. 1955	Neither the value nor the quantity of rice and rubber involved in this agreement was disclosed by official announcements issued. (See *Bulletin*, Vol. III, No. 3; Fourth Quarter 1952.)	Issuance of licences. Payment in pound sterling.	This supplementary agreement, negotiated within the framework of the 1952 Five-Year Agreement, was signed on 24 September 1953 and is to become effective from 1 January 1954 till 31 December 1955.
India—Ceylon	July 1953 to June 1957	India exports 2,500 candies or 1.5 million pounds of Jaffna tobacco per year for the next four years, the import duty for which was agreed on by Ceylon to be at 12 annas per pound or Rs. 450 per candy. Ceylon has further agreed to reduce import duty on handloom woven towels and towelling to the lowest rate applicable for mill-made towels and towelling and to import beedi from India under the Open General License.	Issuance of licences	Concluded on 10 July 1953.
India—Pakistan	1 July to 30 Sept. 1953	India exports iron and steel, railway materials, timber and machinery in exchange for Pakistan's hides and skins and fish. India also agrees to purchase at least 1.8 million bales of Pakistan's raw jute through commercial channels beginning July 1953.	Issuance of licences	Extension of agreement signed in August 1952 and effective till 30 June 1953, pending completion of negotiations for a new agreemennt.
Pakistan—Japan	One year beginning 1 Apr. 1953	Pakistan's exports valued at £32 million include 550,000 bales of raw cotton, 250,000 bales of raw jute, cotton seeds, hides and skins, rock salt, ophedrine, etc. in addition to 200,000 bales of raw cotton contracted for during January-March 1953. Pakistan imports £5.5 million worth of cotton fabrics, £1 million worth of cotton yarn, £1.5 million worth of rayon and other textiles, and £1.5 million worth of metals. Japan has also agreed to supply capital goods and machinery worth at least £6 million on long-term credit basis, facilitating payment in instalments without charging any interest.	Issuance of licences. Payment in pound sterling.	Signed in April 1953. Pakistan has agreed to allow imports from Japan on the OGL basis. The agreement is subject to ratification by both governments.
Philippines—Japan	1 Oct. 1953—31 Jan. 1954	Following the same pattern of the previous agreement. (see Bulletin, Vol. II, No. 2, Second Quarter, 1951).	Issuance of licenses. Open account on dollar basis.	This is the sixth extension of the Philippines-Japan barter trade agreement since 1952.
Thailand—Japan	1 Sept. 1953—31 Aug. 1954	This agreement calls for an exchange of goods valued at $65 million each way, being an increase of $9 million from the previous agreement which expired on 31 August 1953. Types of commodities to be exchanged will remain unchanged. Thailand exports mainly rice, agricultural produce, salt, $1 million worth of rubber, and tin in exchange for Japan's textiles, machinery, electrical appliances, metals, construction materials, transport equipment, chemicals, etc. The present agreement includes Japan's purchase of 100,000 tons of salt at $8 per ton f.o.b. Kohsichang or $7 per ton f.o.b. Bangkok. The price of rice was agreed on at $170.50 per ton for the first amount of 250,000 tons and at $200.00 per ton for any additional quantity.	Open account based on dollars. A swing balance limit has been raised from $2 million to $5 million payable on demand of the creditor party.	Signed on 4 September 1953.